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THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

A Guide to the Academic Placement of Students from the Republic of Korea in United States Educational Institutions

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WORLD EDUCATION SERIES

A SERVICE OF THE COMMITTEE ON EVALUATION OF FOREIGN STUDENT CREDENTIALS OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS

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THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

A Guide to the Academic Placement of Students from the Republic of Korea in United States Educational Institutions
1958

Prepared by

CLARA H. KOENIG
Assistant to the
Dean of Admissions and Records
University of Minnesota

Placement recommendations by the Council on Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials, meeting May 15-16, 1957

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Introductory Statement

ADMISSIONS officers in American colleges and universities at both the undergraduate and graduate levels have long been concerned with the problems of proper placement of students who come to the United States from other countries. Despite excellent service from the United States Office of Education, and the help given by publications such as Mrs. Sasnett's *Educational Systems of the World,* there is still a disturbing degree of diversity in the evaluation of foreign student credentials. In the hope of achieving greater uniformity in evaluation of such credentials and, more important, a placement that will insure the foreign student a greater chance of academic success, the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers appointed in 1955 a special committee to arrange for reports on the educational systems of foreign countries, with recommendations for placement of students coming from those countries to educational institutions in the United States.

The Committee felt a need for coordinating the opinion of all groups interested in the placement of foreign students, so its first act was to arrange meetings which resulted in the organization of a Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials. The membership of this Council is listed on the inside front cover. AACRAO's Committee invited individuals on United States campuses to prepare factual reports on educational developments in various countries. The educational institutions with which the individual authors are associated, are, of course, not responsible for the contents of the reports. These reports, while in manuscript, are reviewed by the Council on Evaluation and the Council incorporates into each report recommendations regarding academic placement of foreign students coming into United States educational institutions.

The following report on the Republic of Korea is intended to help admissions officers to arrive at their own decisions on proper and equitable placement of individual students. Admissions officers should, of course, give due consideration to the purposes, organization, and requirements of their own institutions, and to the academic and personal needs of each student concerned. In considering the problems involved in placement, admissions officers will find two current publications of great value: *Do-It-Yourself Evaluation of Foreign Student Credentials,* published by AACRAO as a part of this series,

and *A Guide to the Admission and Placement of Foreign Students,* published by the Institute of International Education and related to this series.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In May, 1955, the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers asked me to prepare this report. While the administrative responsibility for promoting the project has been mine, the actual research and writing have been done by my colleague, Mrs. Clara H. Koenig. Her knowledge of the problems of student exchange, gained from experience at the University of Minnesota, and with national organizations, on credentials analysis especially, has made her eminently qualified for the preparation of this document. The credit for its statements is therefore hers. The University of Minnesota has no official responsibility for the work.

Further credit for help with this work and its problems of fact and evaluation is due to an informal advisory group composed of staff members of the University of Minnesota, and others, who have recently visited the Republic of Korea on education missions, often in connection with a contractual relationship between the International Co-operation Administration and the University of Minnesota. Their many valuable suggestions, contributed freely out of their own first-hand experience, are gratefully acknowledged. I wish in particular to thank Dr. Clyde H. Bailey, Dean Emeritus, Institute of Agriculture; Dr. John C. Kidneigh, Director, School of Social Work; and Dr. Chester W. Wood, Director of Student Personnel Services, Duluth Branch, one-time Chief, Education Division, Office of the Economic Co-ordinator for Korea. In addition, important assistance was given by Dr. Donald K. Adams of the George Peabody Staff, O.E.C.; Dr. William R. Weems, Industrial Liaison Office, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Dr. Moo Duk Rim, Principal, Kyungju Technical High School, Kyungju-city, Kyung-buk, Korea; and the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Korea.

R. E. SUMMERS, *Dean of*
Admissions and Records
University of Minnesota

July, 1958

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PART I

Physical Aspects, Language, Beliefs, History

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

IT IS a well known fact that the Republic of Korea has in the recent past sustained a major upheavel and is only now emerging from a condition which gave little opportunity for the development of modern methods. As a consequence, records are likely to be incomplete, and statistics only approximations. However, with the application of modern procedures this condition is gradually changing. In fact the entire country is in a state of transition, so that statements made now (1958) may not apply for long.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS

The country officially called Korea, "the land of high mountains and sparkling streams," from "Koryŏ," a dynasty which ruled from 960 to 1392, but called by the people Chosun (Chosŏn). "the land of the morning calm," consists of a peninsula in the heart of the Far East about 525 miles long and 125 to 200 miles wide, surrounded chiefly on the west and south by numerous small islands. It extends almost due south from Manchuria in Asia, from which it is separated by the Yalu and Tumen (Tamean) rivers. On the south it is separated from Japan by the Strait of Korea, on the west from China by the Yellow Sea, while on the east is the Sea of Japan. Its area, including adjacent islands, is approximately 85,285 square miles, slightly smaller than Great Britain, and roughly the size of Minnesota. Of these, approximately 48,300 lie north and 36,700 south of the thirty-eighth parallel.

Equally important historically with its geographic location is Korea's geographic and climatic diversity, the various regions essentially supplementing each other throughout the peninsula, and forming a unit, physically, economically, and racially. It has a high mountainous background in its eastern section, extending into the northern part. The southern half, though not containing any wide plains, is much less rocky. The mountains are not volcanic; and in contrast with neighboring Japan, Korea has not been subject to earthquakes, nor has it been visited to any great extent by destructive typhoons. The

mountains yield mineral resources such as coal, gold, iron, graphite, and tungsten.

Only about one-fifth of the land of the peninsula is arable; and this land is for the most part in the southern section along the coastal margins and in river basins. Here the climate is mild and humid, so that while the colder, more mountainous north has developed into an industrial region with mining operations, hydro-electric power, and limited agriculture, the south, being ideally suited for agriculture where two crops consisting chiefly of rice, barley, and vegetables can be raised each year, has been adequate for the support of a dense population. In 1952 it was estimated that the population north of the thirty-eighth parallel was about 9,000,000, and south about 21,000,000. By 1956 the latter had risen to about 24,000,000. The population of North Korea is not known. More than three-fourths of the population of the southern part is engaged in agriculture.

For political purposes the southern portion of the peninsula, which we know as the Republic of Korea (see under "History") is divided into nine provinces (Do), plus the municipality (Si) of Seoul which has the status of a province. The provinces are divided successively into counties (Gun or Kun), county districts or townships (Myun or Myon), communities or villages (Ri or Li), and neighborhoods (Pan), a group of 10-12 families living within close proximity of each other. The Pan is the smallest administrative unit. The Eup (or Up) is the chief community of a Gun. In Seoul, the ward (Ku), whose subdivisions are the Dong (or Tong) or Ro, and the Pan, is the counterpart of the Gun. The village is the predominant communal organization throughout Korea.

Owing to its geographic location as well as its terrain, Korea has been both a bridge and a barrier between the powers on the continent of Asia and the powers of the Pacific, all of which have at various times been vitally interested in controlling it.

LANGUAGE

The original Korean language was a polysyllabic Mongolian type which is still, with very little change, the backbone of the language of the country. The latter has developed into a combination of this truly Korean language and words borrowed from the Chinese. It is now commonly written in a phonetic alphabet of twenty-five letters (of which twenty-four are now in use), devised in the fifteenth century

by a group of scholars on the order of the emperor. This is known as "onmum" or "Hangul," and was the first phonetic alphabet in the Far East and one of the best in the world. However, due to its simplicity it was formerly regarded by Korean scholars as an unsatisfactory literary medium, and they adhered to the Chinese script for writing the words of Chinese origin. This resulted in a mixed alphabetic and ideographic script which still persists to day. The Hangul alphabet was little used until revived in the late nineteenth century by missionaries who preserved it even throughout the Japanese occupation during which it was not taught in the schools. After liberation (see under "History") in 1945 it was reinstated as the official written language. The classicism of the scholars has proved a handicap, since it has retarded the development of a truly indigenous language for general use. In a message to Korean dignitaries and cultural leaders President Syngman Rhee has called on them to assist in bringing about the use of Hangul exclusively throughout the nation.

The Korean Language Research Society has taken the lead in the gradual elimination of non-Korean aspects of the language and the substitution of native expressions. However, there is at present no adequate vocabulary of scientific, cultural, and technical terms to describe new discoveries and developments. These must be added in order to make the language suitable for modern, practical use. The Ministry of Education has attempted the development of such terms, and the Society, with financial assistance from the Rockefeller Foundation and the American-Korean Foundation undertook the publication of a standard Korean dictionary which, after thirty years' labor under trying conditions, including the Japanese occupation and the Communist invasion, is now complete in six volumes and with 180,000 words. Under a grant from the American Council of Learned Societies a group of American and Korean scholars at Yale University has also also been working on a 50,000 word Korean-English dictionary which is now in its final phases. There are several other bilingual dictionaries now completed or being completed.

One difficulty in connection with the use of the Korean language with respect to its transliteration into English is the fact that the same Korean phonetic symbol may be Romanized in various ways owing to differences between the systems of sound symbolism in the two languages. Personal names are transcribed according to personal preference. Thus the same name may be written Lee or Li or Rhee or Yi.

An individual usually has a name of three syllables: the syllable representing the surname or family name, the syllable representing the generation name (according to an involved Confucian family system), and the personal name syllable, in that order. Frequently the generation and personal names are hyphenated into what, according to Western custom, is called the first or given name. It is estimated that there are only 326 family names throughout Korea, some ten being used by eighty per cent of the people. About one in every five Koreans is named "Kim."

With respect to geographic names, a study made by one scholar found that the name of one city (Pyongyang) could be Romanized in fifty-six different ways. Various systems of transliteration have been developed, but none has been universally adopted as standard. The one which approaches this point most closely is that devised by George M. McCune and Edwin O. Reishauer in 1939, called the McCune-Reishauer system. During World War II the United States Board on Geographic Maps adopted it as official. It was also adopted with a few variations by the United States Army Map Service.

BELIEFS

The Korean's concept of "religion" is quite different from that of the Western world. To him that word has a definitely restricted connotation which does not describe his spiritual convictions. Except as he has come in contact with Buddhism and Christianity, he is unfamiliar with organized systems of religion. Nevertheless there is within Korean culture considerable uniformity of belief and practice, inasmuch as there exists among the people in general a deeply rooted belief in the presence of spiritual beings, both good and bad, that influences their way of life.

The earliest expression of this attitude was Shamanism (or Sinkyo), a form of animistic nature worship. It teaches that not only human beings but also animals and inanimate objects have souls. Life problems are adjusted by the individual having a proper relationship with the world of spirits. It lays emphasis on truth, and regards fighting as a sin. It is still quite widely practiced, especially among illiterates, where it frequently degenerates into superstition.

Confucianism was introduced by the Chinese in the first century, B.C. Its system of practical philosophy and its moral teachings have deeply molded Korean society, mentality, and way of life. The heart

of its teaching is ancestor worship, giving rise to the patrilineal organization of society according to which no two persons are so closely related as the father and the oldest son, who dominate the family completely without regard to the female members. In fact, it brought about the condition whereby the male was, and still is, the traditional unit of society. In the higher classes he leads a comparatively leisurely existence, free from the drudgery of ordinary chores, all of which are performed by the women. The intellectual life of the country has been and still is in the hands of the men. In early Korea the status of women was so lowly that it was not considered necessary or worthwhile to educate them. Not until 1909 did the government open its first high school for girls. Confucianism inculcates also such virtues as faith, righteousness, deference, and friendship. (See also Part II, "Contributing Factors".)

Buddhism, which has had an important influence on Korean character, came from China in the fourth century and held sway until the close of the fourteenth century, when corruption set in, causing it to decline. By 1472 antagonism to it became so strong that its priests were driven out of the capital. It has had some revival, and is still a factor in Korean life.

According to the Buddhist's belief, life is a continuous process of birth and re-birth. Salvation is achieved by the individual alone, through a cycle of re-births. If he practices the virtues of charity, morality, patience, energy, contemplation, and wisdom, he may eventually attain the heaven of Buddha. Besides emphasizing these qualities, Buddhism also stresses beauty, as shown in its architecture and the rituals accompanying its worship.

Christianity made its first contact with the country in 1592, but did not become influential until much later, with the coming in considerable numbers of Catholic and Protestant missionaries in the latter part of the nineteenth century. Since then it has been effectively developed, especially through its schools and its healing arts. It has been adopted chiefly by those of influence, among whom it has become the dominant organized religion.

Taoism, with its teaching of contemplation, reason, and avoidance of force, had some vogue, but not a very significant influence.

The Japanese tried to impose Shintoism with its hero and emperor worship upon the people, but failed. Since 1945 it has entirely disappeared.

The only "religion" which is uniquely Korean is Chon-Do-Gyo (Heavenly Way sect) which is of comparatively recent origin, having been started in 1859 in southern Korea. It is a composite of other religions, combining, its adherents declare, the best features of Buddhism, Confucianism, Christianity, and Taoism. It was suppressed by the Japanese, but has been revived since 1945, partially because of its reformist, nationalistic tone. It has comparatively little influence.

One characteristic of Korean society, derived in part from Confucian ideas, is the class system which has, especially in the past, been quite pronounced. For example, the educated person occupied a special position in the community. Such a person frequently became a wealthy landlord and "aristocrat." Although it was not impossible for a member of a "lower" class to become educated and thus rise to a higher, this rarely occurred because of the high cost of education. Such a person would surely require the help not only of his family, but of his village, and this was not easy to obtain.

Between this highest class or nobility (which included scholars, government workers, and officials), and the rest of the population existed a wide gulf. Within the latter, social distinctions were marked. In order of rank the classes were farmers, technical and professional personnel, businessmen, soldiers, butchers, beggars, and sorcerers. Fortunately this rigid system has had a tendency to disappear.

HISTORY

Due to the policy of complete isolationism that dominated the country for almost three centuries following several devastating invasions ending in 1627, and that gave it the name of "the hermit kingdom," Korea, although one of the oldest nations of the Far East, is one of the least known. In fact, although Korean culture predates Japanese culture by approximately 2,000 years, it is only since the turn of the present century that the Western world has been able to make its influence felt in the country. That has occurred principally through the medium of the Japanese. By 1865 ships of many nations attempted to "open up" Korea to commerce. In 1883 the United States became the first nation to conclude a treaty with her. By 1886 diplomatic relations had been established with all nations having interests in northeastern Asia. Nevertheless, it was not until modern means of transportation gave easy access to it that the impression of remoteness and mystery that enshrouded that country was dispelled.

The historical roots of life in the peninsula of Korea, like those of all ancient civilizations, are obscured by legend, but can be traced to about 2333 B.C. It is generally believed that the people who inhabited the peninsula at that time were of Mongoloid stock, having come from central Asia. Chinese influence began in 1122 B.C. when a Chinese scholar and colonizer established himself and founded a dynasty at Pyongyang in the north, bringing with him a high degree of civilization. The influence of this small state eventually spread to all parts of the country. By the first century A.D. the various clans had organized into three kingdoms, all manifesting strong Chinese influence. The country was unified in 668 A.D. It suffered a number of invasions, the principal ones by the Mongols in the thirteenth century, the Japanese in 1592, and the Manchus (Chinese) in 1627; but although they devastated the country they did not administer the government or destroy the native identity of the people.

The country remained in comparative peace during the period of her isolation which began after the Manchus retired (about 1670). After 1886 a series of "incidents" began between Korea and Japan, during which Russian influence began to make itself felt. When the war between Japan and Russia broke out in 1904, Korea declared its neutrality; but the Japanese invaded the country which had become weakened by internal dissension, and forced the emperor to sign a treaty of alliance with Japan. In the Treaty of Portsmouth in 1905, bringing to an end the Russo-Japanese war, Russia recognized Japan's "paramount position" in Korea, as did the United States and the United Kingdom. Thereupon the Japanese established a "protectorate" over Korea, and in 1910 annexed it, controlling it forcibly by means of its police and its army. When Korean nationalism insisted on asserting itself in 1919, it was summarily suppressed. Nevertheless this "revolt" is a very important event in Korean national life, and March 1, 1919 is celebrated as Korean Independence Day. (See also Part III, "Revolt of 1919.")

The Japanese occupation ended with the defeat of Japan by the United States and the United Kingdom, and at the Potsdam Conference in July 1945. This is called by Koreans "The Liberation." On August 8, 1945, Russia declared war on Japan and entered Korea from the north on August 12, while the United States entered the southern part of the country on September 8. For purposes of military operations in carrying out Japan's surrender, Korea was divided into two parts

at the thirty-eighth parallel. Russia was given the right to receive Japan's surrender north of that line, and the United States south of it. In December, 1945, a five-year trusteeship over Korea was announced by agreement among the United States, the United Kingdom, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, and later, China. The United States and the U.S.S.R. were to form a provisional government to pave the way for complete self-government by the Koreans. However, the U.S.S.R. began to establish her own government in North Korea immediately after Japan's surrender and refused to permit unification of the country despite the referral of the matter to the United Nations by the United States.

In the meantime (1945) the United States had established a Military Government south of the thirty-eighth parallel. The organization of this government was patterned after the Japanese system which it supplanted. It was based on the principle of the centralization of power; and although it was reorganized in April 1946, the autocratic form was retained. There was no opportunity for local self-determination, and paradoxically, no democratic institutions were established. This state of affairs can best be explained by the fact that when the end of the war came the United States military authorities were not prepared for it. It meant that the occupying troops were obliged to make decisions in civil affairs without having had any training in that field. There was also the difficulty of a language which they did not know and a culture which they did not understand. Besides, there was growing hostility between the United States and the U.S.S.R., with Koreans caught in the middle. Unstable economic conditions, added to the political inexperience of the people, produced considerable disorder with riots and bloodshed involving students and teachers as well as the general population.

The United States having referred the matter of the unification of the country to the United Nations, that organization proceeded to arrange for elections to be held throughout the country under the supervision of a Commission appointed for that purpose. However, the U.S.S.R. refused to permit the Commission to operate in its sphere of influence, and the elections were accordingly held on May 10, 1948 in South Korea only. As a result of the elections, authority was transferred from the United States Commission to the Korean Government on August 15, 1948. With it the Republic of Korea was established, and the United States Military Government came to an

end. The country to the north, under the U.S.S.R. became the so-called Democratic People's Republic of Korea. The new government in the south immediately encountered difficulties in seeking to conduct the affairs of state, with guerrilla warfare and pressure from the Communists in the north.

On June 25, 1950, after a series of raids by the North Koreans had been repelled by the Security Forces of the South, the North Korean armed forces struck without warning across the thirty-eighth parallel. The United Nations Security Council declared that the Republic of Korea had been lawfully established and was therefore the only legal government in Korea. The Council also recommended that members of the United Nations furnish military assistance. A number did so, but by the end of 1952 the United Nations had only about 400,000 men under the command of General Douglas MacArthur, whereas the Communists had more than a million, consisting by this time mostly of Chinese. After numerous retreats and advances on both sides the war finally reached a stalemate; and on November 27, 1952 an agreement was arrived at on a cease-fire line, namely the line of contact at that time. On July 27, 1953 a truce, which is still in force, was signed at Panmunjom. This line, which coincides approximately with the thirty-eighth parallel, is considered to be the northern boundary of the Republic of Korea.

PART II

Educational Theory and Philosophy

CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

THE Korean people, having by virtue of their strategic geographic position been subjected to the various influences already described, have experienced great changes from time to time in their mode of living and thinking; and many contradictory and conflicting elements exist among them. Historians are agreed that Confucianism, for example, with its ancestor worship and the consequent desire for the continuation of the family line has contributed greatly to the over-population which has become a serious problem due to territorial limitations. It brought with it also the principle of respect for and obedience to the authority of elders and superiors, which has made it possible for certain powerful individuals to exert control over the masses, and for parents to exercise a strong influence over their children. At the same time it has kept alive the tendency to adhere to tradition. Most important of all for education, it has made the pupil-teacher relationship one of unquestioning acceptance by the former of the teachings of the latter.

Buddism fostered a leaning towards meditation, inaction, a desire to renounce all material possessions, and a willingness to endure suffering.

During the Japanese occupation changes were made in the political structure of the country which was thereby transformed from a primitive, feudal government into a modern, departmentalized one. Moreover, Japanese economic needs in Korea fostered many technical improvements and induced an eagerness to learn more and more the ways of the world. This, however, was of limited extent so far as the Korean population was concerned, so that even now evidences of isolationism persist in rural districts where the people are satisfied with conditions as they are.

A major problem that confronts the individual or agency seeking to modernize and democratize the educational system of Korea is that of "reorientation" in the conception of education as far as its purpose, functions, and processes are concerned.

JAPANESE INFLUENCE

The traditional education of Korea was in the classical manner with no practical application whatever. With the coming of the Christian missionaries, Western methods and concepts were to some extent introduced; but the Japanese checked their advance, arbitrarily imposing their own rigid, bureaucratic, discriminatory system. Only a limited number (one out of four) of the Korean children was permitted to attend the primary schools, and an even smaller number was allowed to attend the middle and high schools. Few attained to a college or university education. Koreans were permitted to speak their own language only in private. Study of their history and literature was forbidden. In fact, the Japanese language became so thoroughly established that, as late as 1947, public documents were still being written in Japanese.

The emphasis in learning under Japanese rule was on memorization and the ability to obtain good grades in final examinations. Docility and unquestioning obedience, accompanied by loyalty to the emperor and acquiescence to the occupying power were an essential part of the system. Discrimination against the Korean population was practiced not only by preventing many Koreans from obtaining an education, but also by favoring the appointment of Japanese as against Korean teachers, by paying the former at a higher rate, by spending more per child on the education of Japanese pupils, and by establishing separate schools for Japanese and Korean children. The result was that Koreans tended to lose their awareness of standards of scholarship. It is estimated that by the end of the Japanese occupation the Japanese held two-thirds of all teaching positions in institutions of higher learning, one-half of those in the middle schools, and two-fifths of those in the elementary schools, in addition to all administrative and supervisory posts.

POST-JAPANESE INFLUENCES

At the end of World War II there was a violent repudiation of everything Japanese, which still exists to a large extent. Not only did the people experience a feeling of relief at being freed from oppression, but, in addition, the defeat of the Japanese by the Western powers undermined Korean acceptance of Japanese superiority and caused them to turn to Western ideas. American educational and technical advisers began the modernization of the country; and as civilian

personnel began to take over, adjustments were made to cultural differences, and as the country became tranquilized, rapid and remarkable progress was made.

The new educational system which was established in 1945, for example, was first administered by Americans with Koreans as observers; but on December 19, 1945, this was reversed; and although most of the changes made thereafter were inspired by Americans, their administration was by Koreans with Americans acting in an advisory capacity. To assist in the development of the quality of leadership which they had so completely lost under Japanese adminstration, a National Committee for Educational Planning was established to advise the Minister of Education. It consisted of seventy-one educated Koreans from all walks of life, and ten United States Army officers. This committee drew up a code of fundamental philosophy of education, embodying five basic principles in accordance with modern thinking. These were to serve as guides and as a goal toward which education was to be directed. They are as follows:

1. The formation of character realized in international friendship and harmony combined with national independence.
2. Emphasis on individual responsibility, mutual assistance, and faithful and practical service.
3. Korean education to make a contribution to human civilization by originating and developing scientific experiments and techniques, and by enhancing the national culture.
4. Cultivation of a spirit of persistent enterprise by elevating the standard of living of the people.
5. Cultivation of a sincere and complete personality by stressing the appreciative and creative power of the arts.

The administration of the educational system was placed in the hands of a Ministry of Education under the central government. The Ministry encountered a tremendous task, with less than one-fourth of the population educated on even a primary school level, and only one-tenth of one per cent on the secondary level. Even fewer were in the professional ranks and in administration. The mass promotion of primary teachers to higher level schools and to administrative positions necessitated the employment of many inexperienced primary school teachers. The average size of classes was from sixty to seventy, with one-half of the teachers engaged in activities other than teaching in order to meet financial needs. Moreover, they were obliged to teach

subjects for which they had had no training, and the rate of turnover was extremely high. Low standards existed not only in the elementary and secondary schools but also in the colleges and universities, especially those which had been recently founded. They were without sufficient funds, housing, staff, and instructional equipment. Neglect, discouragement, and a lack of realization that little real education could take place under existing conditions were everywhere evident.

The plan of education which was adopted and which became effective in the fall of 1946, was based on the policy of compulsory, free primary education. However, even though educational leaders might have recognized the need for change in teaching methods from memory work and the imitation of models to creative thinking and responsibility, there were no teachers trained in these methods. There was a constant return to the old methods of indoctrination and domination. Nevertheless some progress was made in the direction of creating a combination of the old culture, including the re-introduction of the teaching of the Korean language, with newer educational philosophies.

EDUCATIONAL LAW, 1949-1951

On Decemeber 31, 1949, Korean Federal Law number 86 was adopted by the National Assembly on the proposal of the Ministry of Education. It became the first educational law of the new Republic of Korea. This, supplemented by further legislation concerning education, is in general referred to as The Educational Law. Its objectives are declared to be the development of a democratic nation, and service for the benefit of humanity. It attempts to harmonize further new concepts with traditional ideals and values.

One of the objectives of the new law was to make the principle of universal, free, compulsory education up to the age of twelve really effective. But again, owing to the financial difficulties of the government, it was still found impossible to meet this responsibility completely; and the custom, begun earlier, was continued, whereby school principals solicited contributions from parents. At first these were voluntary, but they soon developed into assessments levied before children would be accepted for schooling. There were already in existence "Supporters Associations" corresponding to the PTA's of the United States. These became the means of collecting the assessments. This practice has continued to the present time to the extent that in 1955 from fifty to seventy-five per cent of the operating funds of the

elementary schools were derived from direct contributions collected from parents. Recently the Ministry of Education reduced tuition fees in the elementary schools. In the smaller communities and in rural areas they are to be eliminated entirely. Indications are that the new (1958) education budget will be approximately seventeen per cent of the total national budget as against twelve per cent in 1952. The improvement and strengthening of elementary education occupies top priority with the Ministry of Education. The middle and high schools are supported by parents to an even larger extent than are the elementary schools. In the field of higher education the government concerns itself, financially speaking, only by contributing a comparatively small amount of the national educational expenditure to the national and provincial universities and colleges.

The practice of assessments is not approved by the Ministry of Education, but its abolition cannot be effected since the means of obtaining the necessary funds are not available. Moreover, parents are willing to continue this extra-legal way of securing an education for their children. It is one of the reasons, however, why not all children of primary school age have been attending school. In 1952 only about seventy-one per cent were enrolled. By 1956 the Ministry of Education reported ninety per cent enrolled, with about eighty to eighty-five per cent in actual attendance. The enrollment for 1957 was said to be ninety-five and eight-tenths per cent of the total number eligible. In 1952 only about twenty per cent of the youth of middle school age were enrolled. By 1956 this had increased to thirty per cent. In the same year the enrollment of students of high school age was about nine per cent of that total age group. In addition, about ten per cent of this group were taking work in civic and short-term trade schools. For enrollments in colleges and universities see Part III, "Higher Education."

These statistics indicate a heavy loss to the country in terms of human resources, particularly because they show that it is thereby deprived of many potential leaders; and they emphasize the fact that Korea must accept the principle of free public education, especially elementary education, as an investment by the people as a whole in the welfare of the nation. A revision of the tax laws is essential, so that the burden of supporting her schools will be distributed over the entire tax-paying population.

Other reasons why full attendance of the elementary group has not been achieved are:

1. The long distances of many primary schools from the homes of the children. This situation is being improved with the construction of school buildings in the rural areas. Approximately 1,900 classrooms are being constructed annually.
2. The inability of parents to provide the needed clothing and the lunches required by children attending school.

Further provisions of the Educational Law are that the schools should not be used for purposes of propaganda, and that no national or public school shall offer sectarian religious instruction. However, moral education, although not necessarily offered as a separate subject, must be a part of all school activities, and must occupy not less than the equivalent of thirty-five class periods in each school year. Further, it authorizes a system of scholarships and subsidies to assist talented students in need.

The Law distinguishes between various types of schools (including colleges and universities) as follows:

1. Those established and controlled by the national government, known as national or government schools.
2. Those established by an educational district, city, or province, known as public schools.
3. Those established by a corporation or private individual, known as private schools.

From this it will be noted that the distinction between national or government and public schools is one of administration and control, not of cost. The former are under the direct supervision of the central government, while the latter are controlled in large measure by the provincial and district authorities. There never has been in Korea a system of public schools in the sense of being free of cost to the pupil.

All schools, national, public, and accredited private schools, are required to conform to the provisions of the Educational Law. Some of the private schools, especially the missionary-sponsored institutions, are among the best in the country. At the secondary level approximately one-third of the students attend private schools. They therefore occupy an important place in the educational system.

It was obviously the intention of the National Assembly in promulgating the Law, that the government have strict charge of the educational system, down to the operation of individual schools. This means that the system is highly centralized and has both the advantages and the disadvantages of concentrated power. Among the

former may be counted the more rapid building up of the system; but on the other hand, it has limited initiative and originality on the part of local groups.

LITERACY EDUCATION

The government of Korea, in order to make it possible for the reorganization of "formal" education to proceed as rapidly as possible, has undertaken a program of what is known as "fundamental" or "literacy" education. This includes the important feature of the literacy training of adults as a tool for learning about improvements in homemaking, agriculture, food handling, diet, recreation, and health activities, housing, the status of women, and in fact, all aspects of living.

It has been impossible to come to any accurate conclusion with respect to the degree of literacy which exists in the general population. Previous estimates extend all the way from twenty to eighty per cent. According to the latest report of the Ministry of Education it is now ninety-three per cent.

For the purpose of fostering the fundamental education movement, a UNESCO-UNKRA Training Institute is being developed on the campus of the Seoul National University College of Agriculture at Suwon for the purpose of encouraging among the youth of Korea an understanding of people, and of inspiring them with a desire to carry their knowledge to the masses, in that way bringing about technological and social advance.

POST-INVASION RECONSTRUCTION

Progress in various directions was being made, and hopefulness for the future was beginning to displace discouragement when the Communist invasion took place, once again disrupting the country. During the war which followed, one-fourth of the schools were destroyed, and of the remainder only one-half were available for educational purposes, the rest being taken over by the military forces. The difficulties have been described as "no housing, no textbooks,* no equipment, and often no teachers." Of the relatively few Korean teachers who remained after the Japanese occupation, many on all levels were eliminated by the war.

* At the opening of the school year of 1957 the Ministry of Education announced that for the first time since 1945 all necessary text books would be available for purchase for primary (elementary) school children throughout the nation.

Nevertheless, the desire of Koreans for education was not extinguished, and just as soon as the civilian population was permitted to re-enter areas re-taken from the retreating enemy, classes—elementary, secondary, and college—were resumed, often in tents or even in the open, with teachers who had no regular qualifications for teaching and were obliged to improvise and experiment. In this they were encouraged by the national educational authorities who gave them considerable freedom. To that extent the situation was encouraging. The institutions of higher learning migrated to the south, and carried on in a makeshift fashion. Enrollment even increased, especially after the government exempted college students from military conscription, and refugees came from the north.

It was under such difficult circumstances that the task of re-building education in Korea, begun before the invasion, was once again undertaken. Enrollments at all levels of education showed a heavy increase after the war, thus greatly aggravating the problem of making insufficient equipment do for more students. This was especially serious in the case of institutions of higher learning. Standards could not be maintained; nevertheless these schools were being depended on to play an important part in the reconstruction of the country. The Ministry of Education found it difficult and even impossible to coordinate or supervise the offerings of the various colleges, with the result that there was an overwhelming number of students in the liberal arts for whom there was no market, but a serious dearth of those trained in the professions, science, and technology. The wartime Federation of Universities was created in 1950 in an attempt to integrate educational efforts. It functioned during 1951 and 1952 and met with some success.

High on the list of necessary means of advancing the standards of education in Korea is that of raising the level of teachers' salaries. This applies at all levels, from the elementary through higher education. The low compensation received by this group still makes it necessary for most of them to take employment in other fields in order to survive economically. This places upon the profession the stigma of inferiority and prevents complete devotion to the important cause of education on the part of those engaged in it. In general, the salary scale is higher in private than in government schools. Although professional and scientific organizations are appearing in increasing numbers, there is still need of a strong professional organization of teachers and administrative officers, especially principals, working

together and planning for the future, and setting economic and ethical standards, and enforcing them.

The help of many organizations has been enlisted in the complicated plan for the physical and educational reconstruction of the country. The United States has been especially active in this undertaking. During the period under the Military Government, educational aid was provided under the auspices of the army. Beginning on January 1, 1947, the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) was given this responsibility. Under it several educational programs were instituted.

But after the outbreak of the conflict in 1950, the ECA was relieved of responsibility for civilian relief, and its functions were absorbed in the program of the United Nations Command. Later the principal United States and United Nations organizations all became associated with educational aid, including the United States army through its Armed Forces Assistance for Korea (AFAK), and by voluntary contributions by military personnel. In 1953 the Korean Civil Assistance Command (KCAC) took over the duties of the United Nations Civil Assistance Command for Korea (UNCACK) which had been the first United Nations agency for Korean assistance. In other words, UNCACK was reorganized into KCAC. The United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency (UNKRA) was created in 1950 and assumed responsibility for rehabilitation in the educational field in 1952. KCAC technical specialists and other educational personnel were detailed to UNKRA in order to assist in the operation of this phase of the aid program.

In 1954 the duties of these various organizations were re-defined to curtail duplication of functions, and UNKRA was charged primarily with rebuilding and strengthening the educational system. KCAC and FOA (Foreign Operations Administration, created in 1953 through the merging of several agencies) gave some assistance in educational work. FOA became ICA (International Cooperation Administration) in 1955. After making an expenditure of over ten million dollars on various phases of the educational program, UNKRA turned over its educational activities to the ICA in December of that year.

ICA is providing material and technical assistance in classroom construction, vocational training, teacher education, and higher education. As a part of its program it has arranged contracts with the Ko-

rean government, under which technical staff and management and advisory services have been furnished to agriculture, industry, and the government for the development of centers of technical assistance which represent an adaptation of the facilities which have made such outstanding contributions to the development of the United States. The colleges and universities of the United States, with their trained personnel, are an important source of the men and women for these programs.

Other educational assistance has been given to Korea by three successive American education teams in 1952-53, 1953-54, and 1954-55 (see also Part III, "Normal Schools"). Various scholarships, fellowships, and exchange of persons programs have also been arranged through the IES (International Education Exchange Service).

All of these agencies have been established for the good of the country and its people, some of them under very unfavorable conditions. Although some degree of resistance still exists in the minds of many Koreans who look upon them as a new form of foreign control, their activities are being accepted more and more for what they are.

PART III

Educational Systems

ADMISSION AND PLACEMENT

THE PROBLEMS of education in the Republic of Korea have been described in Part II. These should be kept in mind in making comparisons between the schooling of any individual pupil, as represented by his credentials, and that received by a pupil of a similar age group in the United States. The application of a student who wishes to enter an institution of learning in the United States should be carefully analyzed in order to ascertain his goals, the availability at the institution to which he applies of the program he seeks, his fitness for that program in the light of his previous academic and other experience, and his academic competence. He should be considered for admission only if his record shows superior performance (see "Marking System" under Secondary Education and Higher Education). His personal qualifications, including health, and his financial status in relation to the responsibilities he will be expected to meet, should be examined. His knowledge of English should be especially investigated, since it bears an important relation to his ability to achieve educationally and to the satisfactions he will derive from his sojourn in this country. Suggestions for ascertaining the degree of competency in English by a foreign student are contained in pages 41-45 of the I.I.E.-A.A.C.-R.A.O. *Guide to the Admission and Placement of Foreign Students.*

In addition, attention should be given to the time when the student took his work in Korea, i.e., whether it was under disturbed conditions or since the situation has become comparatively stabilized; and it should be pointed out to him that it is highly desirable that he arrive at the institution that has accepted him in ample time to complete all necessary preliminaries so that he will be able to begin his studies promptly. A frequent cause of failure in studies is delay in starting. Early arrival will also enable him to take advantage of the orientation programs that are offered in many institutions.*

* Admissions officers should be aware of the difficulties which most Korean students experience in obtaining passports and visas in time to arrive for the period set by the institutions to which they have been admitted. They should also be cognizant of the fact that due to the Communist invasion, many records have been lost, and that it is consequently often very difficult, if not impossible for the student to obtain anything by way of credentials for that period.

On the basis of special information in specific areas of study, individual institutions may be able to bring to bear factors in addition to the aforementioned considerations which should apply in all cases.

*Recommendations on Placement in United States Colleges**

Freshman Admissions

Admit high ranking graduates of the twelve-year program in Korean elementary, middle, and high schools as freshmen if their language skills and other adjustment factors warrant it.†

Advanced Standing

Students coming from Korean universities and colleges‡ which they have attended after twelve years of schooling may receive advanced standing credit on the basis of demonstrated competence in subject matter. Generally it may be desirable to defer the transfer of credit until the student has completed as much as one year of satisfactory work in the receiving institution. When the admissions personnel has adequate knowledge of the Korean college or university, of the content of the courses offered, and of the student's achievement there, credit may be transferred at once. See also pages 54, 65.

Graduate Standing

Graduates of college or university programs‡ of at least four years' duration who are superior students may be given graduate status provided they present evidence of having completed the equivalent of a major in their area of graduate interest. Defer formal degree candidacy until completion of at least one term of satisfactory study.

Relevant Comments

In spite of trends toward improvement in Korean education, there are great differences between Korean practices and those in the United

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* For working details see *Guide to the Admission and Placement of Foreign Students*, Sasnett, M.T., I.I.E.-A.A.C.R.A.O., 1957.

† According to a recent ruling of the Republic of Korea government, students will not be permitted to transfer to the United States until they have completed a four-year college course in Korea. An exception is made in the case of students who are majoring in the sciences. These may be allowed to transfer at the end of two years of college work.

‡ For a list of these see under "Plan Since 1948": Higher Education.

States as regards content, teaching techniques, and patterns of response and study on the part of the students. It is for this reason that the Korean student should be given a period of accommodation to the United States type of education, cultural frame, and language pattern before being subjected fully to our permissive and competitive system. For example, the Korean student is almost completely unfamiliar with objective tests which he therefore finds very confusing. If he is accepted, these educational matters should be thoroughly explained to him. It should be pointed out to him that flexibility of transfer status is to his advantage since it gives him an opportunity to achieve personal adaptation to his new "way of life" and to prove his capability as a student*

The Committee on Study Abroad of the R.O.K. Ministry of Education, Seoul, has expressed a willingness to assist in ascertaining English competence as well as in interpreting Korean credentials.

On the principle that it will be of assistance to admissions personnel to have readily accessible some information concerning the influences that have helped to shape present-day Korean education, and therefore to understand the students who are a product of that education, the following sections contain not only a description of current educational practices, which are intended as a working manual for the placement of the students, but also a brief historical account of the practices which preceded them.

EDUCATION BEFORE 1910

Early Schools

Korea had public education in the sense of education encouraged by the government at a very early date. For centuries before any other country in the Far East, she had a cabinet minister in charge of education. It is probably true that by 1894 there was hardly a village of any size that did not have some kind of educational facilities, and that the education of the time was highly esteemed by the people, despite the fact that for financial and language reasons it was limited to a comparatively small number of students.

However, there was no *system* of education, as we understand that term, until 1910. Up to the latter part of the nineteenth century, teaching was carried on in the home by elder members of the family.

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* See also under "Plan Since 1948": Higher Education.

Wealthier families frequently engaged private teachers, or groups of householders combined to engage one.

Gradually these evolved into a type of elementary village school known as the "sohtang" (or sŏdong or soedang), which became the traditional pattern of Korean private, elementary education. According to this plan, an old gentleman, recognized in the village as a "scholar" (sometimes he was an itinerant scholar) taught children to read and write the thousands of Chinese characters in the books written by Confucius and others, mostly saints and poets.

The student proceeded by reading more and more difficult books, to learn the history, literature, and ethical teachings of China and Korea, but little else. After he had mastered all that the village school had to offer, and if his parents could afford it, he entered the so-called "suwon" (or "sutan"), established in the major districts. The highest institution under this arrangement was Sung Kyun Kwan (Confucian College), a scholastic society with headquarters at Seoul. Those who were successful in mastering this vast amount of learning became the "literati" of the country who dominated all phases of activity up to about 1894. All positions were filled by applicants who were able to pass such examinations as were ordered by the king who selected certain topics on which they wrote essays or poems. Those who wrote the best manuscripts were given the positions, regardless of the fact that they had no specific training for them. In other words, an individual's education had no connection with practical living.

Beginning of Government-sponsored Education

The beginnings of government-sponsored schools were made in 1883 with the establishment of an English language school for interpreters; but due to the opposition of the Chinese and Russians, it did not succeed. However, in 1895 the first ordinance was promulgated by the government opening the way for the establishment of government primary schools modeled in general on those of Japan. Meanwhile, Christian missionaries had arrived, and began to establish schools of their own. While their chief aim was evangelism, they found it necessary to teach secular subjects in order to make their mission effective. In 1886 the first school for Korean girls, Ewha Haktang, was founded by the Methodist church in contradiction to all traditions concerning the education of women; and in the same year the first mission school for boys, Pai Chai, was begun. These first schools were elementary schools, but soon (about 1900) higher

schools were established, including the Union Christian College (about 1904), the Severance Medical College (about 1905), Chosun Christian College (1915), and several theological seminaries. The Ewha School for Girls developed into a complete system of elementary, intermediate, and higher education (1910). Thus there was begun in a very modest and inadequate way, the modern system of education in Korea, consisting of both government and private schools, while the old classical type of school or sohtang also remained, and in fact prevailed until 1896, especially in the rural areas. Gradually even these added to their course of study such subjects as language, arithmetic, reading, writing, geography, and some history.

By 1906, following their victory in the Russo-Japanese war and the establishment of their protectorate in Korea, the Japanese began a wide expansion of schools including primary, higher, normal, industrial, and foreign language schools, thus laying the foundations for the system of education which became completely effective when they formally annexed the country in 1910. Soon after that date there became manifest a remarkable increase in the enrollment of girls, especially in the sohtangs. This received a further impetus by the organization in 1922 of the YWCA in Korea.

DURING THE JAPANESE OCCUPATION (1910-1945)

Ordinance of 1911

The Japanese occupation of Korea which lasted for thirty-five years rested, as has been noted, upon force which penetrated the entire life of every community, including its politics, economic activity, religion, morals, health, public welfare, and education. The constant resistance of the Koreans made the application of this force increasingly severe. It in turn heightened their resistance. They were especially outraged when the system was crystallized by the Ordinance of 1911, according to which a differentiation was made between education for Koreans and for Japanese. By its provisions it implied that the Koreans were a backward people as to both mentality and economic status, and made it clear that the object of the Japanese was to make "loyal subjects" of them.

Administration

The administration of education under this ordinance was entirely in the hands of a Japanese Educational Bureau, and strictly military.

Even the school teachers and the officials of the Bureau, like all government officials, wore military uniforms, with dress swords. Figure 1 shows the differences in the organization of the government regular schools for Korean and for Japanese pupils. No religious instruction or religious ceremony was permitted in the common and the higher common schools. This organization remained in force until changes were made in 1919.

ORDINANCE OF 1911

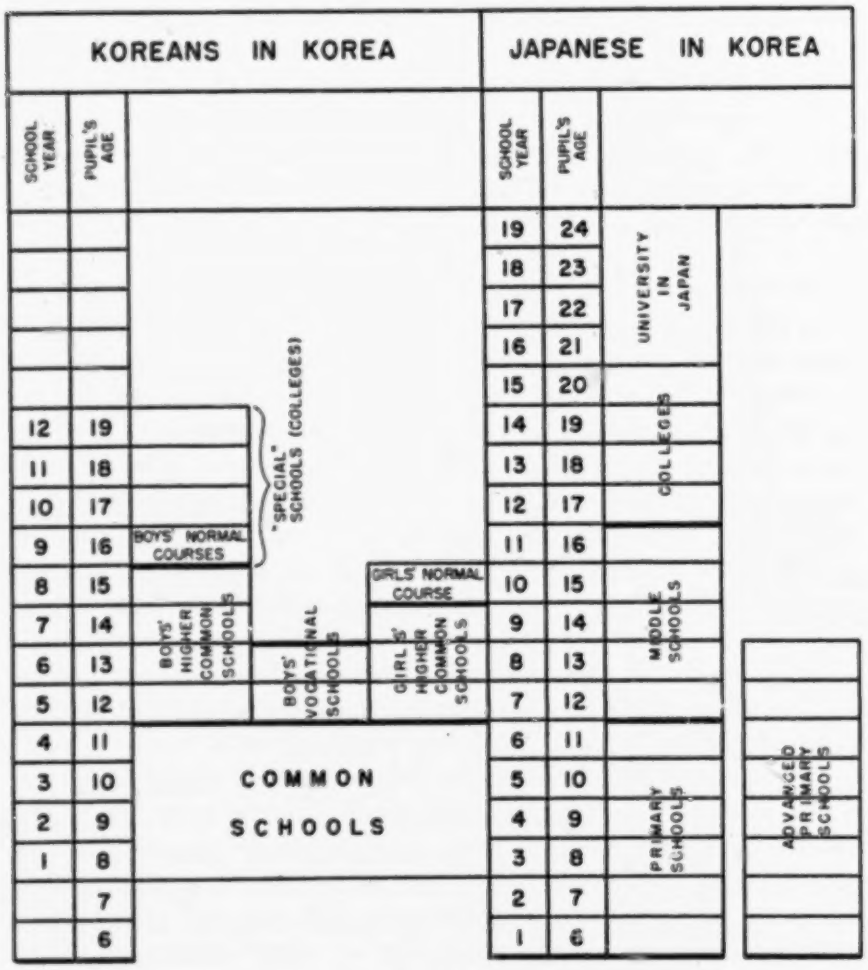


FIGURE 1

Elementary and Secondary Education

The Ordinance of 1911 provided for a Korean "common" school of four years (or three, in consideration of local conditions), whereas the "primary" school for Japanese pupils was six years in length; a four-year "higher common" school for Koreans (three years for girls) in place of the five-year "middle" school for Japanese pupils; and a four-year "college" or "special" school. It made no provision for the establishment of a university for Koreans. Japanese students who had completed the education provided for them in Korea were privileged to go to Japan for university training. Thus the total education offered to Koreans was twelve years in length, beginning at age eight, as against fifteen or seventeen or more years for Japanese students, beginning at age six.

A Korean child is considered to be one year old at birth, and becomes one year older each following New Year's Day. All figures relating to educational systems should be interpreted in the light of this fact.

Vocational Education

In accordance with Korean tradition that education consists of knowledge of the classics, no effort was made by the government schools prior to 1905 to teach any practical subjects. The mission schools likewise made no attempt at offering vocational education. Some of these schools had a practice whereby some of their pupils were able to obtain an education by means of the remuneration they received for certain tasks they performed for the school. Some schools even organized industrial departments such as brick and tile making; but since the products were sold to assist in the maintenance of the school as well as of the pupils, and since the emphasis was on that phase rather than on the instructional, it cannot be said that the missions in Korea had any significant part in the development of vocational education.

That was left for the Japanese, who, when they began their occupation of the country in 1905, and especially after 1910, introduced and rapidly expanded industries throughout the country. This required trained personnel, with the result that vocational schools, consisting of agricultural, commercial, and technical schools were established. The first of these were the industrial training school established at Seoul in 1907, and the agricultural and dendrological school at Suwon in 1906.

Vocational training for girls, such as sewing and manual arts, was instituted in the "girls higher common" schools. The period of study was "less than three years". Girls were required to be no less than twelve years of age to be eligible for this training.

Training of Teachers

Teachers for the "common" schools were trained in the "higher common" schools for boys and girls respectively. The course consisted of one year of post-graduate work for graduates of the "higher common" schools. In addition, a short course of less than a year was provided for boys not less than sixteen years of age who had completed the second year of a "higher common" school, or equivalent.

The first separate institution for the training of teachers was established in Seoul in 1922.

Higher Education

Under the Ordinance of 1911 provision was made for Koreans to receive a "special" (college) education of three or four years upon completion of eight years of common and higher common schooling. Colleges of medicine, technology, and commerce already existed in Seoul, and one in agriculture in Suwon, but only one "special" school, with a three-year course of study was established for Koreans under the ordinance. This was located in Seoul. In practice, it was almost impossible for a Korean student to advance beyond higher common school level owing to the exorbitant costs as well as the restrictive policy of the Japanese.

Private Schools

On the theory that it was better, because less dangerous, for Koreans to have no education at all than to obtain it in schools not under the strict control of the government, heavy restrictions were placed on private (including mission) schools, looking toward their complete elimination. In 1910 an ordinance for their control was promulgated, according to which the establishment of private schools required permission from the government, which then undertook to supervise them. In 1915 the government "Revised Regulations for Private Schools" made it clear that if any school was to be recognized by the government, it would not be permitted to offer any subjects not included in the curriculum of the government schools. This meant that no religious subjects could be taught.

These regulations also set forth the requirements for teachers in private schools offering common, industrial, or special, i.e., higher education, and required the directors of such schools to make detailed reports to the Governor General. Since non-recognition by the government meant that a school had practically no way of continuing to exist, many mission schools which did not close their doors became *secular schools,* while others continued their religious instruction on an extra-curricular basis. Many of the secular private schools also ceased to function, being unable to meet the higher standards prescribed by the ordinance.

These restrictions were in force until 1923 when some of them were removed and a reclassification of private schools was made, enabling many of them to become rehabilitated.

Revolt of 1919

By 1919 the opposition of the Korean people had become so strong that a series of demonstrations took place throughout the country. These were accompanied by a statement of the "Grievances of the Korean People" and a Declaration of Independence. A provisional independent government was proclaimed with residence in Shanghai, China. However, the "Independence Movement" as it came to be called, lacked leadership, unity, and a coherent program, and was savagely repressed. (See also Part I, "History"). The Japanese officially minimized the event. Nevertheless, reforms were made: there was a relaxation of the strict military discipline, many new schools were built, and the quality of education was raised to that of Japan. The government schools for Koreans were equalized with those for Japanese students in accommodations, entrance qualifications, curricula, and opportunities for advancement to higher schools. Moreover, the rules against private schools were modified, the exclusive use of Japanese as the language of instruction was no longer required, and the Korean, Chinese, and other foreign languages were given greater recognition in the curricula. In addition, a Korean was appointed as the head of the Bureau of Education.

Ordinance of 1922

In 1922 a new set of rulings known as the Educational Ordinance of 1922 was promulgated. According to this, the system of government education for both Koreans and Japanese was to follow the

6-5-4 system provided for Japanese in Korea under the 1911 ordinance. However, the old nomenclature was retained, so that the names of officially recognized schools for Koreans were still "common" and "higher common" schools; for Japanese, "primary" and "middle" schools. In general, the children of persons who normally used the Japanese language were to be placed in the "primary", "middle" or "girls high" schools, while those who normally used the Korean language were to be placed in "common", "higher common", or "girls higher common" schools. Schools designated as "elementary" and "secondary" were unrecognized schools under this ordinance.

The Ordinance of 1922 was the basic law for Korean education until the fall of Japan at the close of World War II in 1945. However, the rise of Japanese imperialism soon made educational advancement subsidiary to military demands, and education became "education for war". Koreans were once more strictly regimented: by the regulations of 1938 the study of the Korean language was completely discontinued, and students were forbidden to speak their native tongue both inside and outside the schools. The curricula of the schools became increasingly narrow with the abolition of liberal arts subjects in favor of courses looking toward the training of technicians and the increase of production. This was accompanied by a shortening of the school term. The government dictated all activities and required attendance at Shinto ceremonies, Christianity being regarded as politically subversive. By 1940 Koreans were even required to adopt Japanese names.

SINCE "LIBERATION"

Plan of 1946 and Curriculum of 1948

Upon the defeat of Japan in 1945, a new set of regulations for education was issued, according to which a 6-3-3 plan of elementary and secondary education was organized under the United States Army Military Government. This became effective as of September, 1946, and shows the structure indicated in Figure 2.

Under this system the "old" curriculum was introduced (1948). This has been and will be in effect until the "new" curriculum becomes effective. This is occurring by one grade each year beginning in the fall of 1955. For the high schools the process began in the fall of 1956.

PLAN OF 1946

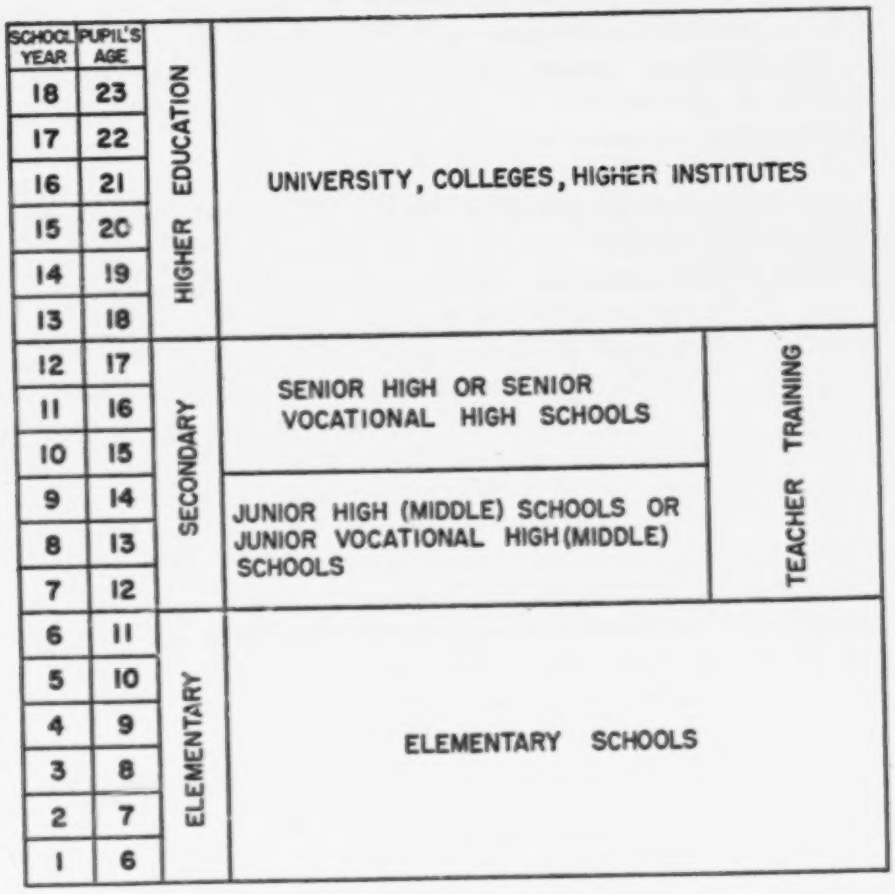


FIGURE 2

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

According to the "old" curriculum the primary school curriculum consists of 28,28,30,34,34,34 class periods a week of 40-45 minutes each during the first through the sixth grade, respectively. The subjects studied are Korean language; social studies (civics, geography); history; general science (observation of nature in grades one through three); general mathematics, including arithmetic; physical education; health and hygiene; music; art (drawing and handicrafts); and home economics (rudiments of sewing and homemaking) in the fifth and sixth grades. There are no electives.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The plan of 1946 continued the practice of separate schools for boys and girls above the primary grades, as well as the entrance examination system for admission to the middle and high schools. The class periods in the middle and high schools were 45 minutes long.

The "old" curriculum for the middle (junior high) school is shown in Figure 3. The "old" high (senior high) school curriculum is shown in Figure 4.

Plan Since 1948

With the end of the Military Government on August 15, 1948, certain additional changes were made in the educational system. These are shown in Figure 5.

Under the revised system a "new" curriculum has been developed, characterized by somewhat greater flexibility according to pupils' individual needs, interests, and abilities, and greater relation of studies to life. Although all subjects in the elementary curriculum are still required, about one-third of those in the middle schools have been made elective, while in the high schools the electives have been increased to approximately one-third of the course of study in the tenth grade and two-thirds in the twelfth grade.

Nevertheless the courses of study are still quite rigid judged from the United States point of view, since the "electives", especially in the middle schools, are generally selected for a particular school by the principal of that school, and these are then required of all students.

The number of class periods per week has in general been decreased.

The Korean language is the language of instruction throughout the educational system.

Although English is not a required subject in the middle and high schools according to the regulations of the Ministry of Education, every middle and high school now requires it of its students.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The curriculum of the elementary school, beginning in the academic year 1955, consists of 24-31 class periods of forty minutes each a week, distributed among the various subjects on the average as indicated in Figure 6.

The law concerning elementary schools provides that if it is diffi-

"OLD" CURRICULUM
MIDDLE SCHOOL (JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL)

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
REQUIRED SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK		
KOREAN LANGUAGE	5	5	5
SOCIAL STUDIES	5	5	5
MATHEMATICS	5	5	
GENERAL SCIENCE	5	5	5
PHYSICAL EDUCATION	5	5	5
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION (Agriculture, industry, commerce, fishery, printing, etc.)	2	2	2
MUSIC	2	2	2
	29	29	24
ELECTIVE SUBJECTS			
MATHEMATICS			5
FOREIGN LANGUAGE	5	5	5
MUSIC	1-2	1-2	1-2
ART	1-2	1-2	1-2
HANDICRAFTS	1-2	1-2	1-2
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION	1-10	1-10	1-10
SPECIAL COURSE IN KOREAN LANGUAGE	1	1	1
SPECIAL COURSE IN SCIENCE	1	1	1
TOTAL NOT MORE THAN	39	39	39

FIGURE 3

cult for a principal to put this schedule into practice due to the fact that double or triple shifts are necessary in crowded schools, the classroom periods may be reduced with the approval of the superintendent of the city or of the governor of the province; but the reduction may not be to the extent that less than two-thirds of the scheduled periods remain.

"OLD" CURRICULUM
(SENIOR) HIGH SCHOOL

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
REQUIRED SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK		
KOREAN LANGUAGE	3	3	3
SOCIAL STUDIES	5	5	5
MATHEMATICS	5		
SCIENCE	5	5	
PHYSICAL EDUCATION	3-5	3-5	3-5
FOREIGN LANGUAGE	0-3	0-3	0-3
	21-26	16-21	11-16
ELECTIVE SUBJECTS			
KOREAN LANGUAGE	2	2	2
SOCIAL STUDIES	5	5	5
MATHEMATICS		5	5
SCIENCE			5
FOREIGN LANGUAGE	5	5	5
MUSIC	1-3	1-3	1-3
ARTS	1-3	1-3	1-3
PSYCHOLOGY (ethics, logic, philosophy, education)			5
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION	5-18	5-20	5-25
TOTAL NOT MORE THAN	39	39	39

FIGURE 4

The term "special activities" as used in the Korean school system describes what in the United States are known as "extra-curricular" activities, and includes all student activities carried on in "democratic organizations", in groups devoted to preparation for the professions, the promotion of social welfare, as well as hobbies.

At the close of 1956 there were 4,279 elementary schools in the Republic of Korea, of which 4,240 were public, 20 were private, and

PLAN SINCE 1948

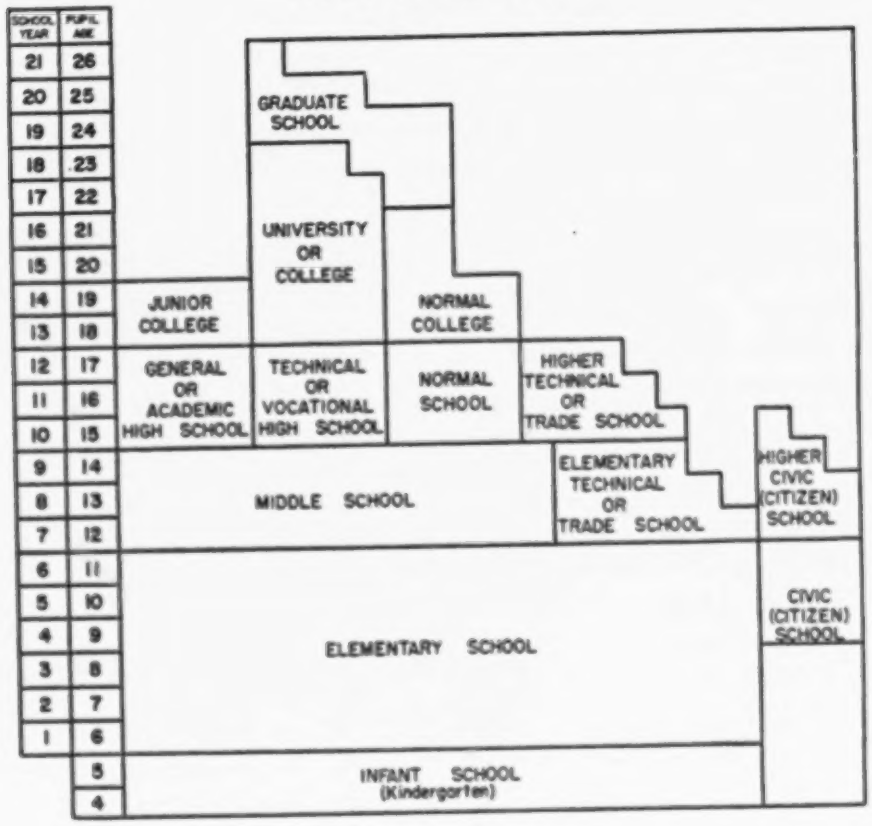


FIGURE 5

19 were laboratory schools attached to universities, colleges, or normal schools. The average class size was approximately seventy pupils. In Seoul it was considerably higher.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Secondary education remains on a six-year basis: three years of middle school and three of high school.

Theoretically the opportunity of a secondary education is open to all who complete the six years of primary schooling and desire it. Actually, fifty and five-tenths per cent of the primary school graduates were admitted to middle schools in 1956. The Ministry of Edu-

"NEW" CURRICULUM ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

SUBJECTS	YEAR					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	PERIODS PER WEEK					
NATIONAL LANGUAGE	7	7	7	6	6	6
ARITHMETIC	4	4	4	5	5	5
SOCIAL STUDIES	3	3	4	5	6	6
NATURAL SCIENCE	2	2	3	3	4	4
MUSIC	3	3	4	2	2	2
FINE ARTS	2	2	3	3	3	3
SPECIAL ACTIVITIES	1	1	1	1	2	2
OTHER SUBJECTS	2	3	1	3	2	3
TOTAL	24	25	27	28	30	31

FIGURE 6

cation has ordered the elimination of entrance examinations to the middle schools. In 1957 achievement tests covering the subjects taught in the elementatry schools were administered to determine eligibility for admission to those schools; but because of financial difficulties, middle and high school enrollments still represent the middle and upper segments of the population in terms of economic standing.

The school year is thirty-five weeks (232 school days) in length, divided into two semesters, the first beginning in April and ending in October, and the second beginning in October and ending in March. There is a summer vacation of forty days in July and August, and a winter vacation of thirty days in December and January. Classes are ordinarily in session six days a week. Class periods are fifty minutes in length.

Marking System

High school marks generally follow the American distribution. It should be noted, however, that the method of establishing marks or of measuring accomplishment in Korea differs considerably from that in use in the United States. Instead of awarding grades on the basis of a comparison between the performance of one student with that of another, Korean teachers fix certain absolute standards and mark each student according to the degree to which he has attained those standards. On this basis, student progress is measured in one of two ways:

1. A unit plan used to a limited extent in public schools. For each subject in which the class meets for three periods a week, the student's achievement is evaluated on the basis of 300 as a perfect grade. For each subject in which the class meets for five periods a week, achievement is reported on the basis of 500 as a perfect mark.
2. The percentage scale, in which 100 points are considered as the perfect mark. The student must average sixty per cent of perfect in the total marks in all subjects in order to be considered passing, and must have forty per cent of perfect to pass in any individual subject (in some schools this is fifty per cent).

In general, no laboratory work is given in the secondary schools. Diplomas of graduation are issued to those who complete their courses of study satisfactorily.

LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

On the lower secondary level there are two types of schools, namely:

1. Middle schools with a general academic program leading directly to the higher schools.
2. Trade or elementary technical schools. They do not prepare for higher education, and are either terminal or lead to admission to higher trade or technical schools.

Middle Schools

In 1956 there were 1,019 middle schools. On January 1, 1957, the number reported was 1,031. The average class size was 65. The curriculum in the general middle school, effective in the fall of 1955, is shown in Figure 7. Middle school instruction is also given in night schools according to the schedule in Figure 8.

"NEW" CURRICULUM
GENERAL (ACADEMIC) MIDDLE SCHOOL

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
REQUIRED SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK		
NATIONAL LANGUAGE	4	4	4
MATHEMATICS	4	3	3
SOCIAL STUDY	5	5	4
SCIENCE	4	4	3
GYMNASTICS	2	2	2
MUSIC	2	1	1
FINE ARTS	2	1	1
VOCATIONAL & HOME ECONOMICS	5	5	5
	28	25	23
ELECTIVE SUBJECTS			
VOCATIONAL & HOME ECONOMICS	1-7	1-7	1-7
FOREIGN LANGUAGE	3-5	3-5	3-5
SPECIAL ACTIVITIES	2-3	3-3	2-3
OTHER SUBJECTS	0-3	0-6	0-3
TOTAL	34-38	34-38	34-38

FIGURE 7

The subject of mathematics as given in the first year of the academic (general) middle school includes elementary statistics; measurement of time, space, and distance; positive and negative numbers; elementatry algebraic symbols. In the second year it includes linear and quadratic functions; inequality; equations of the first and second degree; trigonometric functions; geometric configurations. In the third year it consists of logarithmic functions; inequality; approximation; trigonometric functions, and locus problems.

The general science of the middle school includes definitions; air; fire; oxygen; carbon; carbon dioxide; breathing; heating systems; heat and temperature; climate; earth; sun and stars; strength and energy; matter; water; waterworks; rocks and soil; minerals and metals; acids and alkaloids; laundry; food; magnetism; electricity; sound, radio;

MIDDLE SCHOOL (NIGHT SCHOOL) CURRICULUM

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
REQUIRED SUBJECTS	CLASS PERIODS		
NATIONAL LANGUAGE	140	140	140
MATHEMATICS	140	105	105
SOCIAL STUDIES	175	175	140
MUSIC	84	84	84
FINE ARTS	84	84	84
VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS AND HOME ECONOMICS	140	140	140
ELECTIVE SUBJECTS			
VOCATIONAL SUBJECTS AND HOME ECONOMICS	42-252	42-252	42-252
FOREIGN LANGUAGE	105-175	105-175	105-175
OTHER SUBJECTS	42-322	42-357	42-431
TOTAL	1008-1260	1008-1260	1008-1260
AVERAGE CLASS PERIODS PER WEEK	24-30	24-30	24-30

FIGURE 8

television; botany; animal world; physiology of human beings; science and society.

The social studies include: 1. History, which in the first year consists of natural environment; pre-history and origin; ancient China; development of China; Japan; Korea and Mongolia; India; emergence of modern nations. In the second year it covers the ancient, medieval, and modern life of Western countries; and in the third year, ancient, medieval, modern, and contemporary Korean history. 2. Geography. In the first year, Asia, Australia, and the Pacific Islands are studied; in the second year, Russia, Europe, Africa, North and South America, Arctic and Antarctic regions; and in the third year, Korea. 3. Civics. In the first year, home and social life; school, rural, and urban life; health, welfare, and recreation; adjustment of the indi-

vidual; in the second year, government; political operations; elections; judiciary; finance education; science; public information; art; religion; and in the third year, labor; production: industry; monetary system; transportation; improvement of society.

Vocational Education

The establishment of a truly vocational program is still far from a reality. All of the so-called vocational schools are in great need of equipment and qualified teachers. Some of them are private schools receiving no government funds, and are under the supervision of the provincial governments, not the Ministry of Education. The establishment of a Technical Education Bureau in the Ministry is giving impetus to the improvement of this type of education. Present plans include the development of a training center for vocational teachers as a department of the Seoul Technical High School at Yongdongpo.

In the meantime the trade or (elementary) technical (vocational) schools are still such in name only; and although the program provides that the vocational subjects must comprise at least thirty per cent of the student's total class hours, the curriculum is actually a general academic one, and the instruction is of the theoretical, classroom type.

The so-called "higher technical schools" are for non-student youth and adults, offering courses which vary widely in length, scope, and efficiency. They are open to both boys and girls. Many offer evening classes.

UPPER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The upper secondary school system comprises the general or academic high school, the technical or vocational high school, and the normal school. Admission to these is by examination. Graduates of a regular three-year middle school are eligible to take the qualifying tests which are administered under the general supervision of the Ministry of Education. Actually they are given and scored by faculty members of the individual high schools. In 1956, seventy and four-tenths per cent of the middle school graduates were admitted to the high schools. The average class size was sixty students.

General or Academic High Schools

In 1956 there were 372 academic high schools in Korea devoted to college preparatory training. The "new" curriculum of these

"NEW" CURRICULUM
GENERAL (ACADEMIC) HIGH SCHOOL

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
REQUIRED SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK		
NATIONAL LANGUAGE	4	4	3
GENERAL SOCIAL STUDY	3	3	4
MORALITY	1	1	1
NATIONAL HISTORY			3
MATHEMATICS	4		
SCIENCE		4	
GYMNASTICS	1	1	1
FINE ARTS AND MUSIC	4		
VOCATIONAL AND HOME ECONOMICS	3	3	3
TOTAL	20	16	12

ELECTIVE SUBJECTS
FROM THE FOLLOWING THE STUDENT CHOOSES ADDITIONAL SUBJECTS, SO THAT WHEN ADDED TO THE NUMBER OF PERIODS PER WEEK OF REQUIRED SUBJECTS, THE TOTAL NUMBER WILL BE 34-39.

	PERIODS PER WEEK
NATIONAL LANGUAGE II	3 (for each of 3 years)
WORLD HISTORY	3
GEOGRAPHY	3
GEOMETRY (Plane and Solid)	2-4
ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY	3-6
PHYSICS	4
CHEMISTRY	4
BIOLOGY	4
GEOLOGY	4 (for each of 3 years)
MILITARY TRAINING	6
PHILOSOPHY AND EDUCATION	5 (for each of 3 years)
FOREIGN LANGUAGES	2 (for each of 3 years)
SPECIAL ACTIVITY	

FIGURE 9

schools, effective with the academic year 1956-57 is shown in Figure 9. The course in general social study consists of political science, economics, and sociology, respectively, in the first, second, and third years, with a study of geographical and historical background. The object is "to develop a democratic society and the capacity of the individual for citizenship."

The required course in mathematics comprises the study of algebra through simple and quadratic equations; logarithms and trigonometric functions; and calculus (two periods a week) "to be related to the general development of humanity."

Required science (one to be chosen) includes physics, chemistry, biology, and geology. Biology includes the study of all living things, animal and plant, and human hygiene. Geology includes mineralogy, astronomy, meteorology, and oceanography.

Philosophy includes logic.

Education includes the introduction to education, history of western education, educational psychology, school management, and teaching methods.

Foreign languages offered are English, German, French, and Chinese.

Technical or Vocational High Schools

Vocational training on the high school level is given in one hundred thirty-six agricultural, seventy-four commercial, forty-four technical, and fifteen fisheries and marine high schools. The standard, basic curriculum in all of these schools, totalling 34-39 class periods a week, is shown in Figure 10.

For the various types of vocational high schools the curricula are given in Figures 11, 12, 13, 14.

Normal Schools

The United States Military Government (1945 to August 15, 1948) was keenly aware of one of the great weaknesses of the educational system at the end of the Japanese era, namely the lack of qualified teachers to take over. It is estimated that approximately 15,000 Japanese teachers were dismissed; and since very few Koreans had received any training during the Japanese occupation, the situation was critical.

The government used a number of temporary devices to improve conditions by instituting rewards for those who had high professional qualifications or showed unusual capability, and by publicizing the teaching profession to give it greater prestige and attract additional personnel. In April 1948, the Teachers Certificate Regulations were promulgated, adopting the principle of continuous re-education for teachers. According to these regulations, teachers were required to

BASIC CURRICULUM
VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
REQUIRED SUBJECTS	PERIODS PER WEEK		
NATIONAL LANGUAGE	4	4	3
SOCIAL STUDIES	3	3	1
MORALITY	1	1	1
NATIONAL HISTORY			3
MATHEMATICS	4		
SCIENCE	4		
GYMNASTICS	1	1	1
FINE ARTS	2	2	
VOCATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL	9	13	14
TOTAL	28	24	23
ELECTIVE SUBJECTS			
NATIONAL LANGUAGE, GEOGRAPHY, ANALYTIC GEOMETRY, PLANE GEOMETRY, PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY, BIOLOGY, GEOLOGY	SEE GENERAL HIGH SCHOOL SCHEDULE		
MILITARY TRAINING	2	2	2
PHILOSOPHY AND EDUCATION, GYMNASTICS, MUSIC, FINE ARTS, FOREIGN LANGUAGE (English, German, French, Chinese)	SEE GENERAL HIGH SCHOOL SCHEDULE		
VOCATIONAL AND PROFESSIONAL	2-20	6-32	7-28
SPECIAL ACTIVITY	2	2	2
TOTAL	34-39	34-39	34-39

FIGURE 10

renew their certificates every five years by the completion of supplementary study. Those who were employed without the prescribed training were to receive temporary certificates only. To obtain a permanent certificate, teachers were to complete certain professional studies.

After the North Korean invasion the teacher shortage became even

AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE	PERIODS PER WEEK		
SOILS AND FERTILIZERS	1	1	
CROPS	4		
HORTICULTURE		2	2
SILK CULTURE		2	
ZOOTECHNY		2	
AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING			1
LIVE STOCK INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS			2
UTILIZATION OF INSECTICIDES			2
PLANT BREEDING			1
AGRICULTURAL ADMINISTRATION			2
EXPERIMENT AND PRACTICE	4	6	6
DEPARTMENT OF FORESTRY			
SOILS AND FERTILIZERS	1	1	
SURVEYING	2	1	
MENSURATION OF TREES		2	
FORESTRY	2	2	2
UTILIZATION OF FORESTS		2	
FOREST CHEMISTRY			2
FOREST CONSERVATION			2
EROSION CONTROL			2
EXPERIMENT AND PRACTICE	4	5	6
DEPARTMENT OF LIVESTOCK			
OUTLINE OF LIVESTOCK	2	1	
SPECIAL TREATISE		2	3
INHERITANCE			2
PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE	2	1	1
FEEDS AND CROPS	1	1	
LIVESTOCK FEEDING		2	2
INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS		2	3
AGRICULTURAL MANAGEMENT			2
AGRICULTURE	2	1	
PRACTICE	2	3	3
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING			
SOIL AND GEOLOGY	1	1	
SURVEYING	2	1	
IRRIGATION	2		

FIGURE 11

more acute, and some very unprofessional practices were adopted to increase their number. Many individuals without any specialized training were recruited for classroom work as assistant teachers.

By 1950 the situation had so deteriorated that stringent measures were found necessary to raise the quality of the teaching force. The Laws of 1949-51 provide that the social position of teachers should

AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING	PERIODS PER WEEK		
DRAFTSMANSHIP		2	2
APPLIED DYNAMICS		2	2
AGRICULTURE CONSTRUCTION MATERIAL		2	1
EXECUTIVE WORKS			2
STEEL CONCRETE			2
ADJUSTMENT OF ARABLE LAND			2
RECLAMATION			2
AGRICULTURAL ADMINISTRATION	2		
AGRICULTURE			2
FARM TOOLS	1		
AGRICULTURAL METEOROLOGY	3	4	3
PRACTICE			
DEPARTMENT OF VETERINARY MEDICINE			
AGRICULTURE	1		
LIVESTOCK	2	1	
PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE	2	1	
PHARMACOLOGY		2	1
PATHOLOGY		2	1
ZOOTECHNY			2
OBSTETRICS			2
INTERNAL TREATMENT			2
SURGERY		1	2
PARASITES			1
DIAGNOSIS	1		
EMBRYOLOGY	2		
ANATOMY	1		
HISTOLOGY	1		
FEEDING		2	1
BACTERIAL IMMUNITY		1	
SHOEING			1
VETERINARY REGULATIONS			1
HOOF DISEASES			4
EXPERIMENT AND PRACTICE	3	4	
DEPARTMENT OF SERICULTURE			
HORTICULTURAL CROPS	2	2	
AGRICULTURE	1		
MULBERRY CUTTING	2		
PHYSIOLOGY AND DISSECTION OF SILKWORMS		2	1
SPECIES AND HEREDITY OF SILKWORMS		1	2
SILKWORM PATHOLOGY		2	
SILK MFG. AND SPINNING		2	3
SERICULTURE			3
SOILS AND FERTILIZERS			1
SILK CULTURE REGULATIONS			4
EXPERIMENT AND PRACTICE	4	4	

FIGURE 11 (continued)

be respected and their status guaranteed. They provide also that primary school teachers should be graduates of normal schools, that middle school teachers should have completed the work of a junior college, and that high school teachers must have completed a four-year college course. An assistant teacher may be certified after three

AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
DEPARTMENT OF HORTICULTURE	PERIODS PER WEEK		
SOILS AND FERTILIZERS	2		
CROPS	3		
HORTICULTURE		4	
PLANT BREEDING			4
GARDENING			2
AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING			2
USE OF INSECTICIDES		1	
EXPERIMENT AND PRACTICE	4	2 6	6

FIGURE 11 (continued)

years of experience, or, prior to that, by taking 125 hours of in-service training. Another step toward the professionalization of teachers was taken in April, 1953, with the amendment of the Educational Public Affairs Law. This defines the roles of the various educational officials, and states specifically the qualifications necessary for each.

As yet these laws have not been fully implemented, so that they represent a goal rather than an established practice. Of approximately 56,000 teachers employed in the elementary and secondary schools in 1955, about one-fourth did not meet minimum requirements. Al-

COMMERCIAL HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
	PERIODS PER WEEK		
ABACUS	2	2	2
STATISTICS AND INVESTIGATION			2
TRADING BUSINESS			2
COMMERCIAL ECONOMY	2	2	2
BOOKKEEPING AND ACCOUNTING	3	2	3
COMMERCIAL MATHEMATICS	2	2	
MERCHANDISING		2	
BUSINESS PRACTICE			2
LAWS AND REGULATIONS		1	2
ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY		2	

FIGURE 12

TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
DEPARTMENT OF APPLIED CHEMISTRY	PERIODS PER WEEK		
CHEMICAL INSTRUMENTS	2	1	2
ENGINEERING CHEMISTRY	2	2	3
CHEMICAL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY		2	
EXPERIMENTAL INDUSTRIAL AND ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY	2		2
DRAFTSMANSHIP	2	1	
ELECTRICITY	1	1	
GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, METALLUGRY			2
PRACTICE		2	
DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE			
MATERIALS	2		
EXECUTION OF WORKS		1	1
FINE ARTS	1	2	2
CONSTRUCTION	2	3	3
ARCHITECTURAL PLANNING	1	2	2
MACHINERY			1
ELECTRICITY		1	1
DESIGN AND DRAFTSMANSHIP	2	3	3
SURVEY		1	1
DYNAMICS OF MATERIALS	2	2	
HEATING SYSTEMS		1	2
DEPARTMENT OF CERAMICS			
RAW MATERIALS	2		
CERAMIC INDUSTRY		2	2
AZURE STONE INDUSTRY			2
FIREPROOF MATERIAL			2
FURNACE CONSTRUCTION	1	2	
ELECTRICITY			2
CHEMISTRY	1	2	2
MACHINERY		2	1
ENAMEL			1
DRAFTSMANSHIP AND DESIGN	2	2	2
PRACTICE	2		

FIGURE 13

though some increasing interest in educational research is apparent in the teachers colleges, research and experimentation looking toward improvement of the teaching profession are still insufficient. Leadership in these directions is being given through the Central Education Research Institute (CERI). See under "Other Educational Activities." Lack of buildings, equipment, supplies, and reference materials are strong factors in keeping young people from entering the teaching profession.

One project undertaken by the United States Department of State in 1948 had considerable success. A group of twenty-five educators was

TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL ENGINEERING	PERIODS PER WEEK		
SURVEY OF ENGINEERING	2	2	1
MATERIALS AND EXECUTION OF WORKS	1	1	1
ROAD AND RAILROAD ENGINEERING	1	1	1
BRIDGES AND STRUCTURES	1	2	2
RIVER AND SEA ENGINEERING		1	1
HYGIENE ENGINEERING		2	2
APPLIED DYNAMICS	2	2	2
MACHINES AND ARCHITECTURE			2
DESIGN AND DRAFTSMANSHIP	2	2	2
DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING			
DRAFTSMANSHIP	2	2	2
ELECTRIC POWER	1	1	2
OUTLINE OF ELECTRICITY	3	2	
MEASUREMENT OF ELECTRIC MAGNET	1	1	2
ELECTRICAL TOOLS		2	1
ELECTRIC COMMUNICATION		1	2
APPLICATION OF ELECTRICITY		2	2
ELECTRIC CHEMISTRY			1
DESIGN			2
PRACTICE	2	2	
DEPARTMENT OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING			
DRAFTSMANSHIP	2	3	3
HANDICRAFT	1	1	
MATERIALS	1		
MATERIAL DYNAMICS	2	2	
HYDRODYNAMICS			1
MECHANISM		1	1
DESIGN		1	2
MOTORS		2	2
ELECTRICITY			2
INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT			2
PRACTICE	3	3	3
DEPARTMENT OF MINERALOGY			
SURVEY	2	2	1
MINING ENGINEERING	2	2	2
METALLURGY	1	2	2
ANALYTICS	1	2	2
MINERAL SELECTION		1	2
DRAFTSMANSHIP	2	2	2
GEOLOGY	1		2
MACHINERY			2
GUNPOWDER			1

FIGURE 13 (continued)

sent to Korea to establish a Teacher Training Center, giving in-service training in educational psychology, curriculum development, administration and supervision, library science, child growth and development, methods of teaching, and in various learning areas in

TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
DEPARTMENT OF TEXTILES	PERIODS PER WEEK		
DRAFTSMANSHIP	2	2	2
RAW MATERIALS	1	1	
TEXTILE INDUSTRY	1	1	1
WOVEN GOODS	2	1	2
WEAVING		2	
TISSUES OF TEXTILES		2	2
DYING			2
SPINNING (experimental)		1	2
MACHINES	3	3	2
PRACTICE			

FIGURE 13 (continued)

FISHERIES AND MARINE HIGH SCHOOLS

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
DEPARTMENT OF FISHERIES	PERIODS PER WEEK		
GENERAL MARINE INDUSTRY	2		
FISHING	3	3	4
NAVIGATION	1	1	2
OCEANOGRAPHY	1	1	
METEOROLOGY		2	
AQUATIC LIVING THINGS	1	1	
FISHING SHIPS	1	1	
ENGINES		1	1
MARINE INDUSTRIAL REGULATIONS			1
PRACTICE		3	6
MARINE INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT			
GENERAL AQUATIC INDUSTRY	2		
AQUATIC LIVING THINGS	1	1	
MARINE PRODUCTS MANUFACTURE	2	4	4
MARINE PRODUCTS CHEMISTRY	2	2	4
MICROBES	1	1	
MACHINES	1	1	
APPLIED PHYSICS		1	2
PRACTICE		3	4
DEPARTMENT OF MARINE PRODUCTS REPRODUCTION			
GENERAL MARINE INDUSTRY	2		
SEAL ANIMALS	1	1	2
AQUATIC PLANTS	2	1	
AQUATIC SURFACE LIFE		1	1
CULTURE	2	3	4
FRESH WATER		1	1
MARINE PRODUCTS PATHOLOGY		1	1
MARINE CHEMISTRY		1	1
OCEANOGRAPHY	1	1	
FISHING	1	1	
PRACTICE	2	3	4

FIGURE 14

elementary and secondary education. The project was followed, at the request of the Koreans themselves, by several additional similar enterprises at various times.

To aid further in the improvement of teacher education, three successive "teams" have been sent to Korea under the sponsorship of the United Nations Civil Assistance Command, Korea (UNCACK); the United Nations Korean Reconstruction Agency (UNKRA); the American-Korean Foundation; and the Unitarian Service Committee, as follows: October, 1952, to June, 1953; September, 1953, to June, 1954; September, 1954, to July, 1955. In 1957, 141 foreigners were serving as teachers in Korea. Of these, 114 were from the United States.

There are at present eighteen* normal schools in Korea for the training of elementary school teachers, located at Andong Up, Cheju,

* It is planned to reduce this number to ten or eleven.

NORMAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

SUBJECTS	YEAR		
	1	2	3
	PERIODS PER WEEK		
NATIONAL LANGUAGE	4-5	3-5	2-5
SOCIAL STUDY	3-5	3-4	2-3
MORALITY	1	1	1
EDUCATION	9-12	9-12	9-12
PRACTICE TEACHING	10-12	10-12	10-12
PHILOSOPHY	1-2	1-2	1-2
MATHEMATICS	3-5	2-5	2-5
SCIENCE	2-4	3-4	2-3
GYMNASTICS	2-4	2-4	2-4
MILITARY TRAINING	2-4	2-4	2-4
VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND HOME ECON.	2-4	2-4	1-4
MUSIC	2-4	2-4	2-4
FINE ARTS	2-4	2-4	2-4
FOREIGN LANGUAGE	4-5	2-4	2-4
SPECIAL ACTIVITIES	3-5	1-3	1-2
TOTAL	34-39	34-39	34-39

FIGURE 15

Chinju, Chongju, Chonju, Chunchon, Chungju, Inchon, Kangnung Up, Kongju Up, Kunsan, Kwangju, Mokpo, Pusan, Seoul, Sunchon, Taegu, and Taejon. Having the status of high schools, they require for admission the completion of nine years of elementary and middle school education, and offer a three-year course of study which the Ministry of Education plans to extend to four. The curriculum is in the main identical with that of the academic high school, except that from nine to twelve class periods of fifty minutes each week must be devoted to educational subjects, and ten to twelve to practice teaching. A total of thirty-four to thirty-nine class periods a week is required in each of the three years from the program contained in Figure 15. The required work in education, in addition to practice teaching, consists of:

1. The history of education with emphasis on modern education. Historical changes are noted, and their effect on Korean education studied.
2. General and educational psychology, including child psychology and mental hygiene, and the evaluation of education.
3. Principles of education, especially its philosophical background.
4. Methods, including guidance, curriculum,and school administration.

The work in mathematics consists of plane and analytical geometry. Music comprises theory, singing, instrumental music, and appreciation. The foreign languages offered are English, French, German, and Chinese. One normal school, that at Kwangju, has been designated as a model or pilot institution to experiment with and develop professional methods for elementary school teachers.

Nurses Training Schools

See under "Medical Training."

EDUCATION OF FOREIGNERS

The education of children of the foreign population, i.e., the diplomats, commercial, and missionary residents who do not wish to separate themselves from their children by sending them to schools in their home countries, is being carried on by private teachers and in the Seoul Foreign School in a new building on the Yonsei University campus in Seoul, sponsored by the missionary group. It covers elementary school level work, and secondary school instruction as

far as the tenth grade. The current plan is to expand its facilities to cover the eleventh grade in 1958 and the twelfth in 1959. The curriculum is essentially the same as that of a good high school in the United States, and applicants from the school should be treated accordingly. During 1956-57 the enrollment was approximately ninety pupils.

HIGHER EDUCATION

The admiration of Koreans for scholarly academic pursuits is reflected in the large number of institutions offering work of that type that has been organized, this being quite out of proportion to the country's need for the kind of education most of them provide. As of January, 1956, there were fifty-five institutions which had the approval of the Ministry of Education and were designated by the Ministry as institutions of higher learning. High school graduates in Korea tend to apply for admission first to a few universities such as Ewha Women's University, Korea University, Seoul National University, and Yonsei (Chosun Christian) University. A more comprehensive list, prepared by the Ministry of Education follows. This is not to be regarded as a list of "accredited" institutions.

*UNIVERSITIES *(15)*

National (5)

Name	Location
Chonbuk (Chun Puk) National University	Chunju
Chonnam (Chun Nam) National University	Kwangju
Kyongbuk (Kyung Puk) National University	Taegu
Pusan National University	Pusan
Seoul National University	Seoul

Public (1)

Chungnam (Chung Nam) University	Taejon

Private (9)

Chosun University	Kwangju
Chungang (Chung Ang) University	Seoul
Ewha Women's University	Seoul
Korea (Koryo) University	Seoul

* As classified and identified by the Ministry of Education, Republic of Korea, 1956.

Shinhung (Shin Hoong) University	Seoul
Songkyunkwan (Sung Kyun Kwan) University	Seoul
Sukmyong (Sook Myong) Women's University	Seoul
Tongkuk (Tongguk) University	Seoul
†Yonsei University	Seoul

*COLLEGES *(31)*

National (2)

Chunchon Agricultural College	Choon Chon
Pusan Fisheries College	Pusan

Public (4)

Cheju College	Cheju
Chinju Agricultural College	Chinju
Chongju Agricultural College	Chonju
Seoul Agricultural Junior College	Seoul

Private (25)

Chongchi (Chungchi) College	Seoul
Chongku (Changgu) College	Taegu
Chongju College	Chongju
Chosun University Junior College for Women	Kwangju
Foreign Language College of Korea	Seoul
Haein (Hae In) College	Chinju
Hankuk Theological Seminary	Seoul
Hanyang Institute of Technology	Seoul
Holy Ghost College	Seoul
Hongik College	Seoul
Hyosong (Hyo Sung) Women's College	Taegu
Inha Institute of Technology	Inchon
Kukhak College	Seoul
Kukje (Kook Jae) College	Seoul
Kukmin (Kook Min) College	Seoul
Po Hang Fisheries Junior College	Po Hang
‡Sudo Medical College	Seoul
Sungshil (Soong Sill) College (formerly Union Christian college)	Seoul
Taegu College	Taegu
Tankuk (Tangguk) College	Seoul

* As classified and identified by the Ministry of Education, Republic of Korea, 1956.

† As of May 11, 1957, the Chosun (Korean) Christian University and Severance Union Medical College, including the Nurses Training School, have been combined into Yonsei University.

‡ As of April 1, 1957, the name of this institution was changed from "Seoul Women's Medical College," and both men and women are accepted beginning with that date.

Toksong (Duk Sung) Women's College	Seoul
Tonga (Tong-A) College	Pusan
Tongdok (Dong Duk) Women's College	Seoul
Tongyang Oriental (Herb) Medical College	Seoul
Wonkwang (Won Kwang) College	Ikk San Puk Do

*FOUR-YEAR TEACHERS COLLEGES *(4)*

National (3)

Kongju College of Education	Kongju
#Kyongbuk (Kyunpuk) National University College of Education	Taegu
#Seoul National University College of Education	Seoul

(This institution has been designated as a model or pilot institution to experiment with and develop professional methods for high school teachers)

Private (1)

#Ewha Women's University College of Education	Seoul

*TWO-YEAR TEACHERS COLLEGES *(5)*

National (2)

Kwangju Junior College of Education	Kwangju
Pusan Junior College of Education	Pusan

Private (3)

Choyang Junior College for Kindergarten Teachers	Seoul
Seoul Women's Junior College of Education (Formerly Keun Wha Women's College)	Seoul
Sudo Women's Junior College of Education (Formerly Seoul Normal School)	Seoul

In addition, post-high school training is given at the Naval Academy at Chinhae, the Merchant Marine Academy at Pusan, and the Military Academy at Taeneung near Seoul.

Admission to all the institutions listed above is by completion of the senior high school and by passing the entrance examinations of the individual schools. The one exception is the Yonsei (Chosun Christian) University which abolished entrance examinations for freshmen beginning in 1956-57. The graduate schools are governed by Education Ordinances which prescribe admission by competitive examinations given by the individual institutions.

In 1956, forty-four and five-tenths per cent of the students who

* As classified and identified by the Ministry of Education, Republic of Korea, 1956.

Unit of a University.

were graduated from the high schools were admitted to colleges and universities. The total enrollment in the four-year institutions in the spring semester, 1957, was 81,128, of which 71,371 were men and 9,757 women. This represents approximately five per cent of the total 18-21 age group. The Ministry of Education reports further, that 7,594, including 979 women, were graduated from these institutions in March, 1957. The teaching staff consisted of 2,564 full-time instructors and 2,491 part-time lecturers. The class periods are fifty minutes in length.

Many of the characteristics of higher education that were evident immediately after "liberation" still persist at the present time, namely, insufficient finances, inadequate housing, staff, libraries, and equipment. This has resulted in maintaining such practices as dictation by the instructor taking the place of textbooks, with a minimum of collateral, reference reading, and of laboratory work. Lack of space contributes to the retention of the cleavage between instructors and students, since it makes individual conferences practically impossible. These conditions also contribute to a certain lack of "will to do," of self-confidence, and of ability to see problems from a long-range perspective. Greater stability in leadership as well as in the teaching profession are other important needs.

Following is a catalog of the main subdivisions of Korean colleges and universities. All courses of study are four years in length and require 160 semester hours for graduation, with the exception of the medical schools (See under "Medical Training") and some courses in engineering (See under "Engineering") as well as the Merchant Marine Academy which requires 170 (See also under "Degrees"). In view of the larger number of credits required for these degrees than is the rule in the United States, a proportionate reduction (of at least one-third) should be made in credit values when transferring students' records. Moreover, a thorough educational follow-up should be made on the performance of each individual student after a prespecified period of time, and an adjustment of his advanced standing made on the basis of the results of his work during that period. See "Recommendations on Placement."

LIBERAL ARTS

All the universities in Korea have colleges of liberal arts. In addition, work in various liberal arts fields is offered in the following institutions:

Chongchi College; Chongju College; Foreign Language College; Haein College; Hongik College; Kukhak College; Kukje College; Seoul Women's Junior College; Sungshil College; Taegu College; Tankuk College; Tonga College. See under "Degrees."

AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, AND VETERINARY MEDICINE

Agriculture is offered in the following thirteen institutions:

Cheju College of Agriculture, Cheju
Chinju Agricultural College, Chinju
Chonbuk University, College of Agriculture, Iri
Chongju Agricultural College, Chongju
Chonnam University, College of Agriculture, Kwangju
Chunchon Agricultural College, Wonju
Chungnam University, College of Agriculture, Taejon
Korea University, College of Agriculture, Seoul
Kyongbuk University, College of Agriculture, Taegu
Seoul Agricultural College, Seoul
Seoul National University, College of Agriculture, Suwon
Tonga College, Department of Agriculture, Pusan
Tongkuk University, College of Agriculture, Seoul

Forestry is offered in the following eight institutions:

Chinju Agricultural College, Chinju
Chonbuk University, College of Agriculture, Iri
Chongju Agricultural College, Chongju
Chonnam University, College of Agriculture, Kwangju
Chunchon Agricultural College, Wonju
Korea University, College of Agriculture, Seoul
Seoul National University, College of Agriculture, Suwon
Tongkuk University, College of Agriculture, Seoul

A survey of the College of Agriculture of Seoul National University made by members of the faculty of the University of Minnesota in 1955, disclosed, in addition to the same type of deficiencies previously noted with respect to physical facilities and the resulting lack of practical and laboratory experience on the part of the students, confusion in the numbering of courses, due to the continued use of numbers for new courses when old ones are dropped.

Since 1950 the Seoul National University College of Agriculture has offered four-year courses leading to the B.S. degree. Previous to that time the courses were three years in length, without degrees. The University also gives the degrees of M.S. and Ph.D. in the

field of agriculture. In addition, the College offers a two-year course in teacher training on junior college level. Upon its completion, the student receives a teacher's certificate qualifying him to teach in agricultural high schools.

Veterinary Medicine is given in the College of Veterinary Medicine of Seoul National University, and in departments of veterinary medicine at Cheju College, Chinju Agricultural Colege, Chonnam National University, Chunchon Agricultural College, Kyongbuk National University, and Seoul Agricultural Junior College.

See also under "Degrees" and "Licensure."

COMMERCE (BUSINESS)

Separate colleges of commerce have been established in the following: Chonbuk National University; Chonnam National University; Chungang University; Korea University; Pusan National University; Seoul National University; Yonsei (Chosun Christian) University.

Departments of commerce are found in Chongju College, Kukhak College, Taegu College, and Tongdok Women's College.

See under "Degrees."

ENGINEERING

Engineering instruction is offered in the following nine institutions:

Chonbuk National University, College of Engineering, Iri
Chonnam National University, College of Engineering, Kwangju
Chosun University, College of Engineering, Kwangju
Chungnam University, College of Engineering, Taejon
Hanyang Institute of Technology, Seoul
Inha Institute of Technology, Inchon
Pusan National University, College of Engineering, Pusan
Seoul National University, College of Engineering, Seoul
Yonsei (Chosun Christian) University, College of Science, Seoul

Owing to the unique importance of engineering education in the Korean situation, the United States may expect to receive a large number of applications for admission from Korean students to its institutes or colleges of technology. There is general agreement that improvement in this field of instruction in Korea will be a slow, long-range process, due to the lack of physical equipment, but what is more important, for traditional, sociological, and cultural reasons. Technology has not been a general part of a Korean's thinking and operation, and his attitude toward it needs considerable changing.

Although there has been some improvement in the methods of

instruction, the authoritarian and theoretical rather than the experimental still persist, and the curricula still contain too much classical as against technical material. There must also be developed a greater sense of responsibility with respect to the care and maintenance of machinery, instruments, and other installations, and improved continuity of leadership. The staff must be more adequately compensated, so that there will be less need for them to engage in outside work for the purpose of augmenting income. Greater co-operation within the engineering profession and teamwork among the colleges, as well as interchange of faculty and students between Korea and countries advanced in technology should be encouraged. The institution in Korea which is leading in the modernization of engineering education is the College of Engineering of Seoul National University which is receiving major aid from the United States government and from educational institutions.

Practically every branch of engineering is represented in the curricula of the various colleges, including architecture, aeronautical, agricultural, chemical, civil, electrical, mechanical, metallurgical, mining, naval, and textile engineering, and telecommunication, but the quality of the instruction is questionable.

170 semester credits are required for graduation from the electrical and mechanical engineering courses of Seoul National University and from the Merchant Marine Academy. All other courses and colleges of engineering require only 160.

See under "Degrees."

FINE ARTS

Seoul National University has a College of Fine Arts. Ewha Women's University has a College of Fine Arts and Music. In addition, there are departments of fine arts in Hongik College, Kwangju Junior College of Education, and Pusan Junior College of Education. The courses of study in the Seoul National University, Ewha Women's University, and Hongik College are four years in length and lead to the B.A. degree.

FISHERIES

Fishing is an important industry in the Republic of Korea. Study in this field above high school level is offered at the Po Hang Fisheries Junior College and at the Pusan Fisheries College. The course of study in the latter leads to the B.S. degree, except in marine economics, where the degree is B.Econ.

HOME ECONOMICS

There are no separate colleges of home economics in any Korean institutions. Work in this field is offered in the following:

Chosun University Junior College for Women; Ewha Women's University; Hyosong Women's College; Kwangju Junior College of Education; Kyongbuk National University; Pusan Junior College of Education; Pusan National University; Seoul Women's Junior College; Seoul National University; Sudo Junior College of Education for Women; Sukmyong Women's University; Toksong Women's College; Tongdok Women's College.

The course of study in the four-year institutions leads to the B.S. degree.

LAW

There is great emphasis on and interest in the study of law and politics in Korean institutions. The study of law is offered in the following:

In separate colleges of the following: Chonbuk National University; Chonnam National University; Chosun University; Chungang University; Chungnam University; Ewha Women's University; Korea University; Kyongbuk National University; Pusan National University; Seoul National University; Shinhung University; Sungkyunkwan University; Tongkuk University; Yonsei (Chosun Christian) University.

In departments of the following: Cheju College; Chongchi College; Chongju College; Chongku College; Haein College; Hongik College; Kukhak College; Kukje College; Kukmin College; Sungshil College; Tankuk College; Tonga College; Wonkwang College.

Through the instrumentality of Dr. Robert G. Storey of the United States Southeast Legal Foundation, the Korean Legal Center, the first modern and completed legal center outside of the continental limits of the United States was founded in July, 1956.

See also under "Licensure."

MEDICAL TRAINING, INCLUDING DENTISTRY AND NURSING

Medicine

The study of medicine is offered in the medical schools of the following eight institutions: Chonnam National University; Ewha Women's University; Holy Ghost Medical College (for men);

Kyongbuk National University; Pusan National University; Seoul National University; Sudo Medical College (formerly Seoul Women's Medical College); Severance Union Medical College (now a part of Yonsei University).

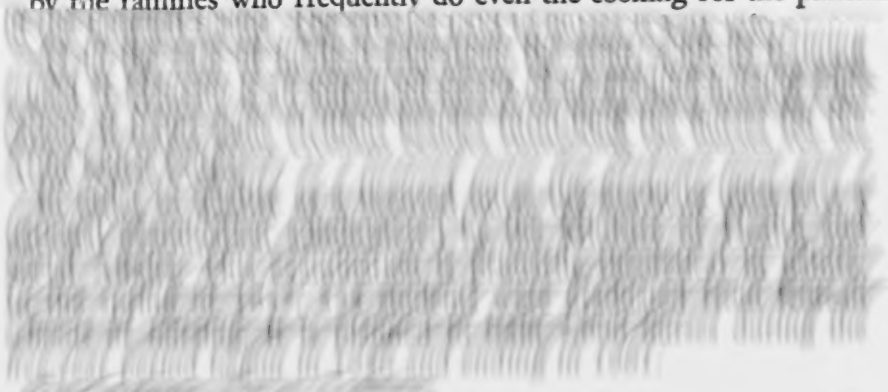
All medical schools are supervised by the Ministry of Education. The selection of students is regularly made upon admission of the student to the pre-medical course which is usually two years in length, with varying course requirements. The faculties of the medical schools have no voice in choosing those who are admitted. The medical course itself is four years in length, and its course offerings likewise vary from school to school. The basic sciences are taught with relatively little laboratory work, while the clinical training is brief and consists of observation rather than participation. The training is primarily for general practice. Internship is not required. There are some graduate students in the Seoul National University Medical School, as in the other university-related medical schools, studying in 3-5-year programs leading to the Ph.D. degree. This study is loosely organized however, and suffers from the same deficiencies that characterize all education in Korea.

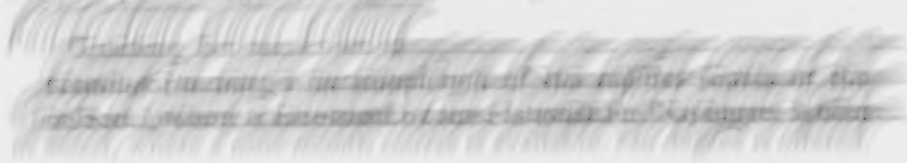
On completion of the medical course the students take examinations administered by the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs. Those who pass receive the M.D. degree. To receive licenses to practice they must pass an additional national examination given by the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Education. This examination may also be taken by applicants who have not had any course work in medical schools, but are self-taught, while certain types of healing may be practiced without license. As a partial control of this practice, a College of Oriental Medicine has been established in Seoul (1951) for training in herb medicine; and the R.O.K. Assembly passed a law requiring licensing of herb practitioners.

Century-old beliefs and customs are a hindrance to the rapid upgrading of medical education in Korea. There is need of minimum standards of admission to medical schools, of curriculum, of faculty, of physical plant, of teaching materials, and of clinical facilities, as well as stricter requirements for licensure, and a system of drug control. The recent establishment of the Medical Advisory Council to the Ministry of Education with representation of the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs is a significant step forward in this connection.

Among the best equipped and most progressive medical schools are

families to strangers. Hence in most cases the bedside care is given by the families who frequently do even the cooking for the patients

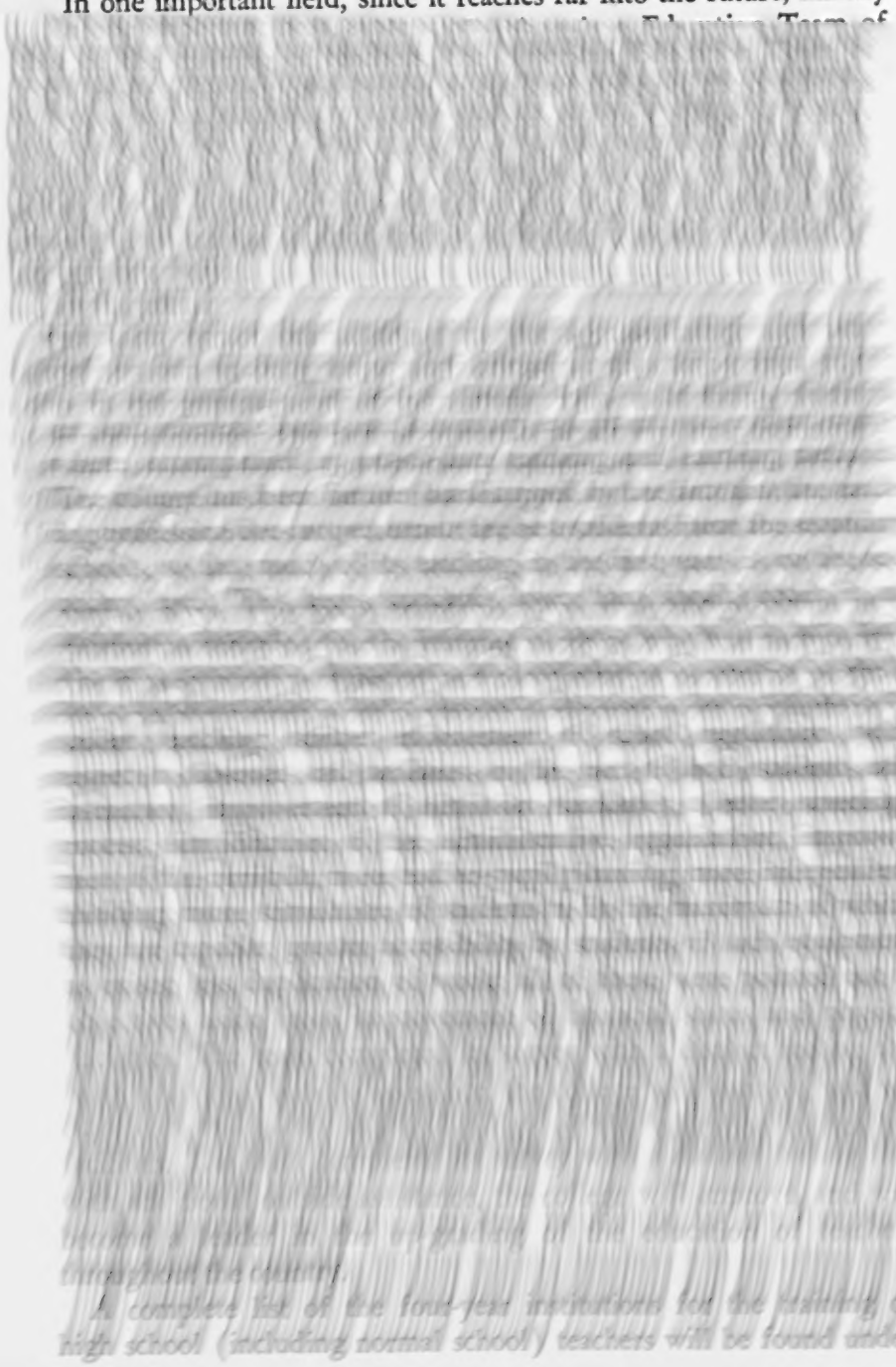




See also under "Licensure."

TEACHER TRAINING

In one important field, since it reaches far into the future, namely



A complete list of the four-year institutions for the training of high school (including normal school) teachers will be found under

"Higher Education." The requirements for graduation from these institutions are:

Major field	80 semester credits
Cultural and professional courses	24 semester credits
Elective subjects	56 semester credits
Total	160 semester credits

Students who major in the social sciences or in the humanities, complete the above requirements, and submit an approved thesis, are awarded the B.A. degree. Students who major in the sciences and complete the other requirements, receive the B.S. degree.

Graduates of these four-year teachers colleges are certified by the Ministry of Education as regular high school teachers, second class. They may become first class teachers after three years of service provided they have met certain in-service requirements as established by law (Educational Public Affairs Law, April, 1953).

The regulations of the Ministry of Education provide that those who teach in normal (teachers) colleges should have completed not less than one year of university study beyond graduation from a normal college. This rule is not strictly enforced, but is being carried out to an increasing degree.

The training of middle school teachers is carried on in two-year normal or teachers colleges. For a list of these institutions see under "Higher Education." For graduation the requirements are:

Major field	fifty per cent of total hours
Professional subjects	twenty per cent of total hours
Cultural subjects	thirty per cent of total hours

The program covers seventy-two weeks. Classes are fifty minutes in length and meet six hours a day, six days a week.

Graduates of these two-year (junior) teachers colleges are certified by the Ministry of Education as regular middle school teachers, second class. As in the case of graduates of the four-year colleges, they may become first class teachers upon the fulfillment of certain in-service requirements.

Throughout the teaching profession there is need for improvement of the in-service phase of teacher training. Not sufficient attention has been given it by either the government or the educational administrative officials.

GRADUATE STUDY

Graduate work is offered in the following institutions:

Chonbuk National University; Chongju College; Chonnam National University; Chosun University; Chungang University; Ewha Women's University; Hanyang Institute of Technology; Korea University; Kyongbuk National University; Pusan National University; Seoul National University; Shinhung University; Songkyunkwan University; Sukmyong Women's University; Tongkuk University; Yonsei (Chosun Christian) University. See under "Degrees."

DEGREES

First degrees, requiring four years of study and 160 semester hours of work.* The usual degrees are:

Bachelor of Arts (B.A.)
Bachelor of Science (B.S.). Many of these designate specific fields, e.g., Agriculture, Engineering, Pharmacy.
Bachelor of Laws (LL.B.)
Bachelor of Business Administration (B.B.A.)
Doctor of Dental Surgery (D.D.S.)
Doctor of Veterinary Medicine (D.V.M.)
Doctor of Medicine (M.D.). This degree requires 240 semester credits, including 80 pre-medical and 160 medical semester credits.

Advanced degrees, requiring varying periods of study. All require theses. The usual degrees are:

Master of Arts (M.A.)
Master of Science (M.S.)
Master of Business Administration (M.B.A.)
Master of Engineering (M.E.)
Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)

MARKING SYSTEM

Caution should be exercised in interpreting Korean grades. Colleges and universities show a wide variation in marking. In many instances the grades are of little significance in terms of the marking systems used in the United States. This is due principally to the following considerations: 1) It is the usual custom in Korea to mark

* See "Engineering," p. 57.

students very severely; 2) There is a wide variation in content between Korean courses and ours, as well as from year to year, so that a student making a "C" one year may be better prepared than one with an "A" in a different year; 3) there is an attempt in some institutions to change to a marking system and distribution of marks similar to ours, with the result that the scales of marking vary according to the year the work was taken; 4) generally low standards still prevail, due to conditions previously described.

In a pyramiding curriculum such as engineering, for example, where prerequisites must be firmly mastered before advanced work is attempted, it is especially important that the transferring student not be given a rating above that which the circumstances warrant. For this reason a flexible adjustment is the most satisfactory one. See under "Recommendations on Placement in United States Colleges."

The usual system of marking in Korean colleges and universities is:

A (highest), giving three grade points per credit
B giving two grade points per credit
C giving one grade point per credit
D giving no grade points
E condition
F Fail

A "C" average is the usual minimum average required for a first degree. Grade points are computed in the same manner as in the United States.

LICENSURE

Graduates of the College of Dentistry, the colleges of pharmacy, and the colleges of veterinary medicine are required to pass the examinations given by the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs before they may practice their respective professions. Previous to 1957 the degree alone in veterinary medicine gave the right to practice.

Graduates of the colleges of law must pass the higher civil service examinations given by the examination section of the Office of General Affairs.

Graduates of medical schools. See under "Medical Training."

Graduates of schools of nursing. See under "Medical Training."

Certification of teachers. See under "Normal Schools," "Teachers (Normal) Colleges," and "Teacher Training."

BULLETINS, CATALOGS, ETC.

At present there is no way of obtaining adequate descriptive material in English concerning all colleges and universities in Korea. Only in rare cases, e.g., Yonsei (Chosun Christian) University, Ewha Women's University, and Chungang University are satisfactory announcements available. Even those which are published in the language of the country are sketchy and incomplete.

Other Educational Activities

CENTRAL EDUCATION RESEARCH INSTITUTE (CERI)

This agency was founded through the co-operation of the Ministry of Education of Korea and the First American Education Team to Korea, and began its work on March 9, 1953. Its financial support has been assumed by the Ministry of Education, the Korean Federation of Education Associations (an organization corresponding to our National Education Association), UNKRA, and ICA, with some assistance from the American-Korean Foundation and the Asia Foundation.

The purpose of the Institute is to provide a central organization where all the problems of education may be studied. These include such fields as the principles and practices of elementary education, curriculum making, teaching methods, educational administration, mental hygiene, moral education, and educational conditions in general. It plans also to aid in the establishment of a strong library system, and in the translation and publication of educational literature. Several studies have already been completed under its auspices. With the encouragement of the Ministry of Education, the Institute is at present devoting itself primarily to the development of tools for educational measurement (achievement tests, interest inventories, etc.), and is conducting in-service programs for teachers. It promises to become an organization with considerable influence in shaping the future of education in Korea.

FEDERATION OF KOREAN CULTURE CENTERS

This organization was formally inaugurated on February 20, 1957, in Seoul. It is sponsored by the directors of forty-six cultural centers throughout Korea, and seeks to enlighten rural communities and promote cultural standards by maintaining close relationships among member centers.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTITUTE

This Institute was established for the purpose of aiding Koreans who are planning to go to other countries for study or for official reasons. At present, instruction is given in English and in German. French has been offered in the past, and facilities are available for the teaching of Spanish. In English the student body consists of 1) Korean scholars, officials, and technicians who are being sent to the United States under Smith-Mundt and other programs administered by the American Embassy for ICA and the United Nations, 2) Students going to the United States with or without scholarships, and 3) officials of the Korean government who need to speak English as part of their duties; newspaper, radio, and television personnel; and teachers of English in Korean schools. Classes are held on the Seoul National University campus, and meet six hours a day, five days a week for twelve weeks for each unit of instruction consisting of intensive drill and practice.

The Institute was established in 1952 by UNKRA and by the Ministry of Education which regards it as a special school functioning under Korean education laws. Since September 1, 1957, UNESCO has replaced UNKRA. Its financial support is derived primarily from these organizations, with supplementary assistance from ICA, USIS (United States Information Service), and the American-Korean Foundation.

INSTITUTE OF ASIATIC STUDIES OF KOREA UNIVERSITY

This is a research institute recently formed (1957), whose object is to publish research works by its members in book form, besides issuing a periodical on Asian studies in Korea. It will also promote coordination among similar research groups in Free World nations by exchanging scholars and books.

LITERACY EDUCATION

The "civic" and "advanced civic" schools for which provision is made in the plan of education since 1948 are schools interested in furthering the fundamental or literacy movement (see Part II, "Literacy Education"). The former are for the purpose of giving instruction to children who have been unable to complete the primary school, and the latter are for employed adults who have missed the opportunity of a primary education. They teach general education,

and have no regular program of work. The fees are nominal and are used for the most part to pay the teachers' salaries. The civic schools are gradually being abolished and replaced by public elementary schools as enforcement of compulsory education becomes increasingly possible. The advanced civic schools are meeting a real need in the program of adult education.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION

This Society was formed in the spring of 1957. It includes the leading educators in the country, and promises to become an influence toward more modern educational practices and improved understanding of school purposes and problems.

SEOUL RESEARCH COUNCIL

This Council was recently founded by a group of noted professors and scholars to promote East Asian studies in Korea, and to encourage scholarship and educational contacts in this field among countries of East Asia as well as the rest of the world.

SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH SOCIETY

This is a society among scholars and college professors to encourage social science study, and to hold various events in order to increase academic activities among the leaders in the field. Publication of a periodical is planned. Its headquarters are in the Social Science Research Library of the Asia Foundation in Seoul.

STUDENT DEFENSE CORPS

A unique feature of the educational system of the Republic of Korea is the Student Defense Corps. It was established by presidential decree in 1949, and enrolls all male students in all secondary schools and higher institutions. It was intended primarily for the defense of the nation and is highly centralized, the President of the Republic being president of the Corps. On the school level the principal is the commander of the unit. Originally it offered primarily military training; but during the war its functions were considerably expanded, so that it became a form of student government, including, in addition to its military aspect, a wide range of extra-curricular activities such as welfare, school discipline, and physical and health education. It has incurred much criticism as tending toward regimenta-

tion and retardation of individual development, with the result that recently it has taken on an aspect of less militarism and more physical training and recreation.

LIBRARIES

At the time of the liberation of Korea from Japan, the libraries of the country were the product primarily of Japanese planning and thinking, and contained very little of the native Korean literature and learning. There was an extensive National Library, and a good library at Seoul National University, developed along Japanese lines, as well as the libraries of private institutions such as Chosun Christian (now Yonsei) University, and Ewha Women's University. The latter were permitted to have only a most limited number of Korean books. There were no school libraries, and there was no public library system. A few collections were available to a restricted number of select individuals.

Following the occupation by the United Nations and the establishment of the United States Military Government, a professional library was established at military headquarters, but this was not for the general public. It was not until the Office of Civil Information (later United States Information Service, USIS) under the Department of State began to import books that libraries were opened for general use. However, most of their books were in English and therefore of value to only a limited number. Universities and colleges began to make collections, and individual professors also assembled books; but these were for the most part restricted to the use of instructors. Students had very little access to them, and very few were in languages read by the students.

Then, with the Communist invasion, most of these were destroyed, and the situation became worse than ever. Collections are slowly being made once again, the principal handicap being lack of funds. Many donations have been made, but a considerable number of these are of little or no value. Another serious handicap has been a government regulation which prohibits the importation or use of literature in the Japanese language.

The libraries which are now in existence are badly organized and poorly catalogued. The latter is due at least to some extent to the difficulty of alphabetizing the Korean language. The almost complete lack of trained librarians in the country will be offset gradually

through the library training department at Yonsei (Chosun Christian) University, which is now in operation. It is the first organized program of library training in Korea, and is under the guidance and direction of a specialist from the United States. It is financed under the Education Division of the International Co-operation Administration (ICA).

The library of Seoul National University, probably the best institutional library in the country, is in a bad state of deterioration. There is not a single trained librarian on the staff, and instead of a strong central library, the one that does exist has little control over the twelve departmental and about thirty-eight seminar or sectional libraries. The result is that books tend to get out of library control, and are not replaced. Moreover, there has been no systematic acquisition of new publications since 1939, so that most of them are obsolete.

Physical facilities in the libraries are inadequate. There is only very limited seating capacity, and students stand in line for places to read. Books are ordinarily signed out only to juniors, seniors, and graduate students, and only to a very restricted extent. The concept of library service as understood in the United States does not as yet exist.

The most encouraging feature of the situation is the attitude of those in charge. They are aware of the unsatisfactory conditions, and have a progressive outlook, so that, given professional training and funds with which to operate, improvement can be expected in time.

PART IV

Educational Administration

UNDER the constitution of the Republic of Korea, the Ministry of Education is one of the twelve departments of the executive branch of the government. At the head is the Minister of Education who is appointed by the President of the Republic. He is a member of the President's cabinet. He is assisted by a vice-minister, similarly appointed, and has under his supervision five bureaus: common education (primary and secondary schools); higher education; technical education (advancement of science, agricultural, commercial, industrial, and fisheries schools); culture (adult education, living standards, cultural guidance, the arts, museums, libraries, and physical training); textbooks (their compilation, translation, publication, inspection, purchase, and distribution).

The power of the central government and of the Ministry of Education in particular, is considerable, since it establishes and executes policies in all these areas of education. Moreover, the President appoints the secondary school principals on recommendation of the Minister of Education and the provincial governors. The position of the principal carries with it considerable prestige and is therefore widely sought. He is responsible for the school budget, a task to which he must give priority, as well as the building program of his school. He works with the PTA organizations which help pay his salary as well as the salaries of his teachers, attends meetings sponsored by the provincial government and the Ministry of Education, recruits teachers, conducts staff meetings, and assists teachers with personal, social, and health functions and problems. All of these duties unfortunately leave him very little time for what should be one of his main functions, namely that of supervising and improving class instruction.

In the provinces (Do), responsibility for education is divided between the central government and the provincial governor who is responsible to the Minister of Home Affairs. In spite of this, there is a considerable amount of democracy inherent in the educational system. For example, the governor is assisted by a Provincial Bureau of Education and Social Affairs to which are attached school inspectors for primary and secondary education, and an Educational Advisory

Committee consisting of one member elected from each county (gun), one from each city, and three members appointed by the governor. It elects its own chairman, and is potentially an important policy-making body.

Below the provincial level, in the counties, the "gun soo" or "chief" is the chairman of an Educational Committee whose members are elected by the individual county districts (myun) for a term of four years. This committee has recommendatory status. Each county also has an inspector of education or "gun" superintendent of schools who is [illegible]

Koreans have had very little training in school administration. Even now, little training of this kind is given to the universities and normal colleges. However, plans are being made to initiate a program in educational leadership in the Seoul National University College of Education. This will lay emphasis on the training of principals and superintendents in the philosophy and techniques of democratic administration. As the people, by means of experience, gain self-assurance and realize their responsibilities and potentialities by exercising the authority which lies in the local educational bodies, they can come to play an increasingly large part in the administration of education, eventually assuming complete control. In this field, as in all others, Korea is in a transitional stage, with changes taking place, some rapidly, others more slowly, as technical and other assistance takes effect.

Thanks to the native stamina of the people in spite of many unfavorable conditions, their spirit of independence, their devotion to learning and to culture, together with the interest of parents in their children, their homogeneity, their willingness to accept democracy

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